

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The second meeting of the World Federation of Educational Associations was held during July in Edinburgh, Scotland. The federation revised and stabilized the organization which was first established at the meeting held in conjunction with the National Education Association in San Francisco in 1923. Augustus O. Thomas, state commissioner of education of Maine, was re-elected president to serve during the coming biennium. Other Americans elected to positions in the executive management of the federation are H. C. Worth, of British Columbia, vice-president for America; Charles H. Williams, of Missouri, secretary pro tem; Walter R. Siders, of Idaho, and Mary C. C. Bradford, of Colorado, members of the board of twelve directors.

The federation took action favorable to co-operation with the League of Nations in exchanging students and teachers and in promoting the general introduction into the schools of all countries of courses of instruction in internationalism.

The following summary of action taken was published in the *New York Times*:

The resolutions, which are the result of a week's deliberation by various groups, were considered at a plenary session this afternoon. One committee will

work with the Educational Department of the League at Geneva and through it develop the major portion of the federation's plan.

The delegates recommended that history, geography, and civics be taught from an international standpoint in all schools and that a committee be established to select textbooks for elementary schools on the child life of all nations as a foundation for the early creation of a world-outlook.

The establishment of courses of internationalism in all normal schools and universities was urged, and the delegates recommended that one foreign language be made compulsory during the period of secondary education.

It was voted to establish a committee to study the advisability of establishing a world-university and a universal library bureau.

#### A NEW BILL PROVIDING FOR A FEDERAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The National Education Association, warned by the repeated statements made by the President of the United States that he will favor no legislation by Congress appropriating money to the states, has dropped that part of its bill for a federal department of education which authorized the appropriation of \$100,000,000. It is great gain to the cause of education that this step has been taken. It is now possible to advocate the creation of a department of education of the right kind. The department should be, as is provided in the new bill, a federal agency for investigation and publication, not an auditing department for the disbursement of federal subsidies.

The new bill has other virtues. It absorbs into the proposed department both the Bureau of Education and the Federal Board for Vocational Education, creates a council to co-ordinate the educational activities of the various federal departments, and provides for the support of the department three times the amount named in the earlier bills.

It is possible for most, if not all, of those who were obliged to oppose the earlier bills indorsed by the National Education Association to join in the support of the present bill. There is quite certain to come out of the present campaign a stronger federal agency for educational investigation than has ever been provided in the history of our government. It is important that there be a united effort on the part of all members of the educational profession to secure the enactment of this bill into a law by Congress.

Copies of the bill may be secured by writing to the headquarters of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

#### NEW YORK REGENTS EXAMINATIONS

It has been evident for some years past that the New York State Regents examinations have gradually become extremely cumbersome. They could not advantageously continue to develop in the direction in which they have been moving during recent years. The survey of the state educational system which was made under the directorship of Professor George A. Works in 1922 pointed out clearly that, through the Regents examinations, the state department of education was attempting supervision of the work of the schools in detail to a degree which was quite out of place for a fallible central agency. At that time the practice of commenting on the work of particular schools and even individual teachers had gone so far that the readers of examination papers at Albany not infrequently assumed to direct the teaching in opposition to the judgment of competent teachers in leading schools of the state.

The official announcement of the plan which has been adopted to relieve the situation is as follows:

One of the most important actions taken by the Board of Regents in recent years with respect to Regents examinations and to the certificates and diplomas issued upon these examinations is the authorization of a new form of academic diploma, which will ultimately replace the several classes of diploma now issued. It is like the college-entrance diploma in that it will permit certification by the principal with respect to the satisfactory completion of a four-year course of study approved by the Board of Regents. The evaluation of this work will be partly by examination and partly by the certification of the principal (in subjects in which Regents examinations are not offered).

This will establish, therefore, a single form of academic diploma certifying to the completion of a four-year course of study in a registered high school. The diploma will bear on its face the name of the particular field in which the pupil has concentrated his efforts—in academic subjects, in classical subjects, in vocational subjects, and in technical subjects.

The Regents action relating to this diploma is as follows:

"Beginning with the school year 1925-26, academic diplomas will also be issued to those who meet the three following requirements. After June, 1927, it will be the only method by which the academic diploma may be obtained. The diploma will bear on its face the name of the particular field in which the pupil

has concentrated his efforts, namely, academic subjects, classical subjects, commercial subjects, vocational subjects, and technical subjects.

## I

The passing of Regents examinations in:

English three years and English fourth year or English four years . . . . . 3 units

NOTE.—Business English may be substituted for English 4 for the diploma in commercial subjects.

American history and either History A or B . . . . . 2 units

Science (2 units), (a) general science or biology plus physics or chemistry or (b) physics plus chemistry

or

Mathematics (2 units), elementary algebra or general mathematics plus plane geometry . . . . . 2 units

7 units

## II

The passing of the Regents comprehensive examination in one of the following three-unit groups:

Foreign language . . . . . 3 units

Commercial . . . . . 3 units

Vocational (home-making or agriculture) . . . . . 3 units

Technical (science or mathematics; that chosen under I may not be used here) . . . . . 3 units

3 units

## III

Certification by the principal to the successful completion of the remainder of the 15 units (in addition to statutory requirements) of an approved four-year high school . . . . . 5 units

Total . . . . . 15 units

"The Commissioner of Education shall prescribe the nature and content of the comprehensive examinations in Requirement II.

"NOTE.—In order to obtain the indorsement in commercial subjects or in vocational subjects, the pupil must have completed not less than 6 units in commercial or vocational subjects, respectively. Of these 6 units, 3 must have been earned by examination in Group II and not less than 3 by certification in Group III.

"Unit.—A unit is the value given to a study which is pursued 5 periods a week for approximately 45 minutes for each period, for 36 weeks (180 school days), involving an equal amount of time in preparation outside of the classroom. It is the equal of 5 Regents counts."



THE CALIFORNIA SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF  
SECONDARY EDUCATION

For years California has been recognized as the leader among the states of the Union in the training of secondary-school teachers and in the organization of a comprehensive system of secondary education. A new stage in the progress of secondary education in that state is marked by the incorporation of an association which is designed to replace by a working research organization the old-fashioned teachers' meeting with its inspirational talks. The following statements made in the circular announcing the formation of the new society should serve to stimulate high-school teachers in all parts of the country to adopt a similar course.

The California Society for the Study of Secondary Education is the legal successor of the California High School Teachers' Association. The society has its distinctive functions as a state-wide professional body for study, investigation, and report. It is essentially a scientific body for research in secondary education. As such, it will publish bulletins, periodicals, and reports and thus render a real and substantial service to secondary education in California. We hope that its membership will include a large number of representative people who are interested in the problems of boys and girls from twelve to twenty years of age as well as all the high-school teachers in the state.

The California High School Teachers' Association made a good beginning in the field of research in secondary education. The studies of the Committee of Fifteen, under the auspices of that association, marked an epoch in the history of the California high schools. The monumental report of the committee, published in a substantial volume of 406 pages, deserved and received national recognition. It is the aim of the new society to continue, in even greater range and effectiveness, the type of inquiry originated by the Committee of Fifteen.

The publications of the society will be of such extent, it is planned, as to utilize practically the entire associate membership fee of two dollars. In other words, the society plans to provide a full two dollars' worth of publication materials. The expenses of the society, aside from publication, will be met through the other classes of membership and from gifts.

The reorganization of the California High School Teachers' Association, with stated purposes and plans, is in accord with a great educational movement now sweeping the entire country—a movement which brings mutual responsibilities to teachers, school administrators, and the layman who represents taxpayers and citizens in a particular or general way.

The charter of the California Society for the Study of Secondary Education defines its purposes to be: (1) to conduct research in education, with special reference to public secondary education, (2) to disseminate information con-

cerning the facts of the present system of education and more particularly with reference to public secondary education, (3) to report on the best practices, plans, and policies tending to improve public secondary education, (4) to do any and all things necessary to accomplish these purposes.

#### PLANS AND POLICY

1. To sponsor investigational studies in the field of secondary education through committees and special investigators.
2. To co-operate with other agencies conducting investigational studies in secondary education.
3. To co-operate with the State Department of Public Instruction.
4. To publish a quarterly journal on secondary education.
5. To hold professional meetings of the society in co-operation with each of the six sections of the California Teachers' Association.

#### AN ANNOUNCEMENT OF THE CHILD STUDY ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA, INC.

A conference on parents and children, to which teachers will be asked to contribute, will be held at the Hotel Waldorf, New York City, October 26-28, 1925, under the auspices of the Child Study Association of America, Inc., formerly the Federation for Child Study. The difficulties and problems of parents, the family as it exists today, the community surrounding the family, leisure and how to teach children its use, daydreams and personality traits of children, and other topics will be discussed. It is the belief of the association that parents will derive great benefit from the sessions. For further information address the Child Study Association of America, Inc., 242 West Seventy-sixth Street, New York City.

#### SALARY SCHEDULES PREPARED BY THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The Research Division of the National Education Association has prepared a series of elaborate tables showing in detail the salary schedules of the leading school systems of the United States. The tables can be purchased for \$5.00 a set from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. They are invaluable to school administrators and students of educational finance. In their preparation the Research Division has given new evidence of the value to public schools of this branch of the National Education Association.

## THE CLASSICAL INVESTIGATION

The third section of the report of the Classical Investigation was issued just at the close of the last school year, too late to be made a subject of comment in the June issue of the *School Review*. During the summer the attention of the country has been called to this report through a vigorous newspaper campaign, which has been carried on in behalf of the American Classical League by its president.

The report is a survey of tendencies with respect to classical education in England, France, and Germany. It is made clear on every page that Europe is committed to a continuation of classical education in the schools which are conducted for the upper classes of society. Numerous citations from educational pronouncements by governmental authorities and leading citizens are included.

Perhaps it may make the European attitude clear if we quote some of the extracts selected for broadcasting in the newspaper releases issued by the president of the American Classical League. One relating to England is as follows:

The whole theory underlying English secondary education is contained in the following brief statement:

"It has been well said that the purpose of education is not so much to prepare children for their occupations as to prepare them against their occupations. It must develop in them the powers and interests that will make them in later life the masters and not the slaves of their work."

The Chamber of Commerce in Havre is reported as having made the following pronouncement:

"Classical education, far from being harmful for commercial careers, can, on the contrary, be considered very useful, for it is certain that a mind well trained ought to adapt itself more easily to the most complex questions."

The German situation is described in the following terms:

The outbreak of the war served to intensify the nationalistic agitation against the study of ancient and foreign languages and culture. The argument that German culture contained in itself the best elements of the past was employed by those who wished to abolish the classics entirely.

The supporters of the classics did not close their eyes to the need of internal reform. They recognized the danger of too much attention to grammar and exercise books rather than to extensive reading of classical authors.

For the large number of secondary-school graduates who were not fitted to take their place in a practical workaday world, the narrow classical routine of the *Gymnasium*, with its face turned to the past, was responsible in large measure. Not only did it ignore all that was valuable in the national history and literature, but it failed to bring out those permanent humanistic and civic values that are inherent in a proper study of the classics.

During the last part of the nineteenth century a weakness in the status of the classics in Germany was that the choice of the scholastic career had to be made for pupils at the age of nine or ten, which was too early an age for the determination of such a vital step.

No one can read the full report from which these extracts are taken without realizing that even in Europe, where the classics are taught only to a very small group of pupils selected from aristocratic levels, there is serious disturbance of the accepted traditions.

The American high school will hardly be influenced by the example of Europe. There, even in the most advanced countries, less than 8 per cent of the population have access to secondary education. More than 92 per cent of the people never enter the school where the classics are taught. What concern of the United States is it that they plan in Europe to carry on the struggle for a requirement of Latin and Greek? Apparently even on that unhappy continent there are questionings as to the desirability of teaching 8 per cent of the population the traditional curriculum.

When will the American Classical League and its president discover that in the United States 30 per cent of the population are attending secondary schools and there being prepared for life? When will the American Classical League learn that the cause for which it ought to labor is not a universal study of the classics? When will the American Classical League discover that what is needed for the training of its members and officers is a study of something besides those subjects with which they are now fully acquainted?

#### COMPETITION AND CRITICISM IN THE SCHOOLBOOK TRADE

In the June issue of the *School Review* there was published an account of the plan adopted by the state superintendent of Louisiana to prevent unfair criticism of textbooks during a recent state adoption. In brief, the plan required that all adverse criticisms be made matters of public record.

The editors of the *School Review* have received a number of comments from publishers, one of which contains the following paragraph:

The reader of the editorial is going to get the impression that it is common for schoolbook agents to "slam" competing books. An up-to-date agent never does this except at the request of the teacher. He is primed against his competitors, of course, and the ordinary up-to-date teacher generally asks the agent the points against a competitor. When I myself was on the road, I often used to say to a teacher who was considering a competitor, "Of course, I am loaded with some red-hot points against that book if you would like to hear them." The answer always was, "Go ahead and give it a good 'slam.' We want to know the worst."

The discussion can legitimately be continued in the hope that school authorities and publishers will ultimately come to see that "slamming" books so as to bring out "the worst" is quite futile. What is needed is full and scientifically planned comparisons. Such comparisons are fairly easy to make with regard to certain characteristics of such books as readers. Publishers are now very generally able to tell teachers how many words are in the vocabulary of a reader, how much space is devoted to illustrations, the devices that have been adopted to avoid eye fatigue, and why the particular quality of paper used was chosen.

It is not always as easy to give a complete analytical account of high-school books as it is to describe readers, but, for the purpose of training their agents and for the purpose of convincing teachers, publishers are finding it advantageous to use the methods which have been developed for scientific textbook analysis. They can promote very greatly the movement for the elimination of all petty criticism and play on personal prejudice if they will establish the practice of scientific comparison. Through the adoption of such methods they will also contribute very directly to the scientific preparation of textbook material.

It is legitimate that a large share of the responsibility for the improvement of textbooks be placed on the publishers. If there were official agencies for the preparation of textbooks in this country, as there are in the province of Ontario, there would be no hesitation in holding these public agencies to account for the perfection of every possible device for the improvement of schoolbooks. In the United

States it is the common practice to leave textbook-making to private concerns. The responsibility of these concerns is that of public-utility corporations. Their methods should not be those of competition but those of scientific perfection of their products.

#### THE SCHOOL SURVEY OF NEW YORK CITY

A year ago there was much publicity given to the fact that the New York City schools were to be surveyed. It was stated officially and repeatedly that this time the work was to be done with sympathy for all that is good in the system and with courage to eliminate anything that was found to be unworthy. It was more than intimated that this survey was to be directed by a man competent for the task. Earlier surveys of New York and other cities had been made by educators who pretended to understand the technique of scientific evaluation, but these earlier workers in the field have constantly been criticized by the director of the present New York survey as biased and incompetent.

The survey began. The director summoned to his aid practical men, superintendents who were in charge of great school systems. These men went to New York for periods varying in length from a few days to more than a week. They were sent here and there by the director. Their names were issued in bulletins to the newspapers and to the educational press.

Facts were collected from the school principals and teachers of the city. Who better than these practical people could describe the virtues and achievements of the New York schools? If only the "high spots" of the New York system, carefully sifted by the authorities in charge of the survey, could be put on paper and sent out with that sanction which always attaches to truth unincumbered by the prejudices of science, then vital educational movements would certainly spring up from the Bronx to Coney Island.

It is almost tragic to keep the world waiting for the final pronouncements of the director and his staff. There have been rumors during the year that all has not gone as advertised. It has proved to be difficult to find a new name for the Gary plan and bring it into New York under cover of night lest it be recognized. It is difficult to get much out of conferences at which the president of the

board of education insists on doing most of the talking. His unscientific chatter does not seem to promote survey clarity as much as was expected. The school system is not all "high spots," and some of the features that were hoped to tower to the greatest altitudes have suffered temporary collapse.

The streams of publicity seem to have dried up. The world is allowed to wait in a bleak and unfriendly outer darkness for the survey which was to give a demonstration of how such undertakings should be directed and executed.

#### TESTS TO BE USED IN MEASURING APPRECIATION OF LITERATURE

After some years of experimentation, two members of the staff of the University High School of the University of Chicago—Hannah Logasa, the librarian, and Martha Jane McCoy, an English teacher—have prepared a series of tests to be used in measuring appreciation of literature. These tests have been printed in preliminary form and are available for English teachers who wish to test their classes. Communications should be addressed to Miss Logasa.

The following statements are made by the authors:

- A. Objectives in teaching appreciation
  - 1. To help the student find joy in literature
  - 2. To develop taste—discrimination between good and poor literature
- B. Guides to appreciation which may be taught and therefore tested
  - 1. Those that may be tested by standardized tests for the powers of discrimination developed in the student
    - a) Discovery of theme
    - b) Association of various pieces of literature that have common themes
    - c) The degree to which the reader participates in the selection
    - d) Reaction to sensory images
    - e) Response to rhythms and recognition of differences between rhythms
    - f) Distinction between true and false imagery
    - g) Discovery of fresh and vivid expressions
    - h) The establishment of certain criteria of judgment (in addition to those above) to be applied to any poem, e.g., universality of theme, sincerity of author's attitude
  - 2. Those that can be tested only by conferences with the individual student or by specific tests at the close of a unit of instruction



- a) Application of selection to life-experiences
- b) Appreciation through richness of allusion
- c) Richness of suggestive phrase
- d) Interpretation of author's meaning by discrimination of the central idea in word groups
- e) The author's revelation of himself
- f) Interpretation through background of period and author's life

For the purpose of the tests the authors concerned themselves with the "guides to appreciation" listed under "1." The tests are self-administering. The authors believe that the directions to the student are so clear that the instructor will need to add nothing. The tests are objective. They are easy to score. The material is new; it is good test material in that it is unfamiliar to the student.

There is a definite progression in the tests. They are arranged in the order in which one learns to appreciate literature. The student naturally begins with *discovery of theme*, since a selection means nothing to him until he knows what it is all about. From that he goes to *reader participation*, although he may not signify his reaction to the selection by any such name. In turn, he comes to the elements which lead to that participation, namely, *reaction to sensory images*, discrimination between good and poor *comparisons*, recognition of *rhythm*, and appreciation of *fresh expressions* as opposed to triteness. The seventh test is, in a sense, a composite of the other six tests, since our *standard of taste in poetry* is based on the elements of our appreciation and a few rather indefinite criteria that we have set up for ourselves.

#### VENTILATION

That existing systems of ventilation which are prescribed by legislation waste annually \$2,500,000 of taxpayers' money in the United States and are not only needlessly extravagant but actually injurious to the health of school children is asserted by Dr. C.-E. A. Winslow, professor of public health of the Yale School of Medicine and chairman of the New York State Commission on Ventilation. This commission was appointed by a former New York governor and supported by the Milbank Memorial Fund.

In New York State alone \$200,000 of public funds are foolishly spent each year in the operation of school ventilation systems based on a disproven theory. Such systems of ventilation not only cost more to build but, once constructed, require the wasting of more millions in operation.

The heretofore supposed need in room ventilation of allotting a minimum of thirty cubic feet of fresh air a minute to every individual

occupant is not borne out by the commission's findings. On this requirement, known as the "carbon-dioxide standard," most modern ventilation legislation is based. Introduced in 1862 by Max von Pettenkofer and later adopted by the American Society of Heating and Ventilating Engineers, this standard has resulted in the enactment by twenty states throughout the country of laws making mandatory the installation of extravagant school ventilation systems.

If this were all, if the harm done by mistaken theories of ventilation were limited to the pocket-book, the matter might be dismissed as one to be settled between public appropriating bodies and their own consciences. There is, however, a still more fundamental and still more serious aspect of the case.

Ideal room ventilation, it was found, is obtained not by pouring in a volume of warm air but by providing a small amount of cool fresh air to counteract the occurrence of a warm, moist, and still atmospheric condition. With an air supply of thirty cubic feet a minute per individual, it is essential to maintain temperatures generally over 68° F. to avoid unpleasant drafts. Such a warm atmosphere causes a rise in body temperature, an increased pulse rate, increased respiration, and decreased blood pressure, and results in markedly diminishing one's working efficiency and in seriously increasing one's susceptibility to respiratory diseases.

The commission's investigators report that among pupils in a classroom ventilated in such a way as to require the maintenance of a high temperature the incidence of respiratory sicknesses was 70 per cent above that among children in two rooms of lesser temperature ventilated by window inlets and gravity exhausts.

## THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUINQUENNIAL STUDY

C. O. DAVIS  
University of Michigan

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held its annual meeting in Chicago during the week of March 16, 1925. At this meeting the secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools reported an elaborate study of conditions and policies as they exist at the present time in the high schools on the approved list of the North Central Association. Full and complete reports from the high schools are required every five years. The accompanying tables give some notion of the types of inquiry made. The tables likewise give a summary of some of the facts as they were reported by the various schools.

Although 1,797 public high schools were accredited by the association this year, reports were received from only 1,571 of these schools in time to utilize them in compiling the data. The tables presented reveal, therefore, the facts as they exist in 1,571 of the public high schools approved by the North Central Association. These high schools are distributed by states as follows: Arizona, 27; Arkansas, 31; Colorado, 66; Illinois, 209; Indiana, 85; Iowa, 109; Kansas, 112; Michigan, 122; Minnesota, 78; Missouri, 63; Montana, 32; Nebraska, 95; New Mexico, 30; North Dakota, 70; Ohio, 205; Oklahoma, 81; South Dakota, 38; Wisconsin, 96; Wyoming, 22.

It is pertinent to state that the tables presented, together with more complete analysis and interpretation, will be found in Part I of the *Proceedings of the Thirtieth Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools*. Further, a much more detailed analysis of these figures and a comparison of them with figures gathered in previous years will be made and published in a separate bulletin.

The study here reported concerns itself with seven main groups of questions. The first deals with the general organization of the

TABLE I

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Population of town in which school is located:		
10,000 or less.....	1,084	69.0
10,001-25,000.....	238	15.1
25,001-100,000.....	125	8.0
More than 100,000.....	124	7.9
Total.....	1,571	100.0
Schools warned since 1920.....	482	30.7
Schools having boards sympathetic with North Central Association.....	1,506	95.9
Number of weeks in school year:		
Less than 36.....	2	0.1
36.....	1,009	64.2
37.....	32	2.0
38.....	295	18.8
39.....	25	1.6
40.....	202	12.9
Not reporting.....	6	0.4
Total.....	1,571	100.0
Number of periods in school day:		
5.....	107	6.8
6.....	203	12.9
7.....	470	29.9
8.....	685	43.6
9.....	62	4.0
10.....	44	2.8
Total.....	1,571	100.0
Length of class periods:		
40 minutes.....	1,222	77.8
50-60 minutes.....	248	15.8
More than 60 minutes.....	101	6.4
Total.....	1,571	100.0
Number of units required for graduation:		
15.....	132	8.4
16.....	1,354	86.2
17.....	68	4.3
18.....	17	1.1
Total.....	1,571	100.0
Number of years included in school:		
3.....	190	12.1
4.....	1,251	79.6
5.....	25	1.6
6.....	105	6.7
Total.....	1,571	100.0

schools; the second, with pupils; the third, with supervisory officers; the fourth, with teachers; the fifth, with the program of studies; the sixth, with buildings; and the seventh, with administrative policies.

Table I presents facts concerning the general organization of the schools. While the North Central Association accredits schools in towns of various sizes, 69 per cent of the accredited schools are located in towns having a population of 10,000 or less. The typical number of weeks in the school year is thirty-six; the typical school day consists of seven or eight periods; the typical class period contains forty minutes; and the usual number of units required for graduation is sixteen.

It is rather suggestive to note that 190, or 12.1 per cent, of the 1,571 schools studied are organized on the basis of the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. This means, it would seem, that in 190 cities or towns the junior high school has definitely taken over the ninth-grade work in the school system. It is of further interest to note that there are 130 schools organized as five-year or six-year schools.

Tables II, III, and IV present data with regard to the pupils. The total enrolment in the 1,571 schools is 678,935, divided by sex in the ratio of 47.5 for boys to 52.5 for girls. In 1924, 109,932 pupils graduated from these schools. Of this number, 41,700 entered college in the autumn of 1924. In other words, 16.2 per cent of the entire school enrolment in 1924 (boys, 14.9 per cent; girls, 17.3 per cent) graduated. Of those graduating, 37.9 per cent (boys, 42.4 per cent; girls, 34.4 per cent) entered college. It is interesting to note further that of the total enrolment, 12.9 per cent (boys, 11.9 per cent; girls, 13.9 per cent) are non-resident pupils, coming, it is assumed, largely from rural or semirural communities into the larger school systems of the neighboring towns and cities.

In 41 per cent of the schools the enrolment per teacher is between twenty-one and twenty-five pupils.

Table V shows that about 60 per cent of the superintendents do no teaching whatever in the secondary schools, whereas approximately two-thirds of all the principals teach from one to four or more classes a day. Forty-one of the superintendents and fifteen of the principals do not meet the standards of the North Central Associ-

ation. Four hundred and seventy-eight, or 30.4 per cent, of the schools have an assistant principal.

Tables VI, VII, VIII, IX, and X present data with regard to the teaching staff. There are 30,732 teachers employed in these 1,571 schools. Of these teachers, 11,044, or 35.9 per cent, are men, while

TABLE II

GRADE	BOYS ENROLLED		GIRLS ENROLLED		TOTAL ENROLLED	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
IX.....	101,297	14.9	104,510	15.4	205,807	30.3
X.....	93,779	13.8	102,789	15.1	196,568	28.9
XI.....	70,842	10.4	79,555	11.8	150,397	22.2
XII.....	56,808	8.4	69,355	10.2	126,163	18.6
Total...	322,726	47.5	356,209	52.5	678,935	100.0

TABLE III

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Enrolment per teacher:		
15 or less.....	137	8.7
16-20.....	494	31.4
21-25.....	644	41.0
26-30.....	243	15.5
More than 30.....	19	1.2
Not reporting.....	34	2.2
Total.....	1,571	100.0
Teacher-pupil ratio:		
Less than 20 to 1.....	474	30.2
Between 20 to 1 and 25 to 1.....	735	46.8
Between 25 to 1 and 30 to 1.....	316	20.1
More than 30 to 1.....	16	1.0
Not reporting.....	30	1.9
Total.....	1,571	100.0

19,688, or 64.1 per cent, are women. Of the total, 250 hold the Ph.D. degree; 2,893 hold the M.A. or M.S. degree; and all but about 6 per cent of the academic teachers hold the Bachelor's degree. More than 26 per cent of all academic teachers and more than 31 per cent of all vocational teachers were attending summer school in university or college during the summer of 1924. If one takes into account the period between 1920 and 1925, it is found that fully one-half of

TABLE IV

	Number	Per Cent
Graduates, 1924:		
Boys.....	48,163	43.8
Girls.....	61,769	56.2
Total.....	109,932	100.0
1924 graduates entering college:		
Boys.....	20,440	49.0
Girls.....	21,260	51.0
Total.....	41,700	100.0
Non-resident pupils:		
Boys.....	38,454	43.8
Girls.....	49,435	56.2
Total.....	87,889	100.0
Pupils carrying less than four subjects for credit.....	30,830	4.5
Pupils carrying five or more subjects for credit.....	72,692	10.7

TABLE V

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Classes taught daily by superintendent:		
0.....	952	60.6
1-3.....	467	29.7
More than 3.....	29	1.9
Not reporting.....	123	7.8
Total.....	1,571	100.0
Classes taught daily by principal:		
0.....	470	29.9
1-3.....	736	46.8
More than 3.....	317	20.2
Not reporting.....	48	3.1
Total.....	1,571	100.0
Number of minutes principals spend in supervision daily:		
Less than 30.....	268	17.0
About 60.....	444	28.3
About 90.....	293	18.7
About 120.....	164	10.4
More than 120.....	57	3.6
Not reporting.....	345	22.0
Total.....	1,571	100.0



all the teachers have been seeking to increase their efficiency by attendance at college or university summer schools.

Of the academic teachers, more than 95 per cent have the requisite number of hours in education needed to satisfy the North Central Association standards literally. The non-retroactive clause in the standards covers the other cases.

Of the more than thirty thousand teachers here considered, only a few more than two thousand entered North Central Association

TABLE VI

	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Academic teachers.....	6,817	22.2	14,040	45.7	20,857	67.9
Vocational teachers.....	4,227	13.7	5,648	18.4	9,875	32.1
Total.....	11,044	35.9	19,688	64.1	30,732	100.0

TABLE VII

	Men	Women	Both
Percentage academic teachers are of all teachers...	61.7	71.3	.....
Percentage vocational teachers are of all teachers...	38.3	28.7	.....
Percentage of academic teachers new in 1924-25..	27.9	26.9	27.2
Percentage of vocational teachers new in 1924-25..	20.6	27.6	24.6
Percentage of all teachers new in 1924-25.....	25.1	27.1	26.3

schools in September, 1924, without having had previous teaching experience. It is obvious, therefore, that, as a rule, the schools accredited by the North Central Association draw their teachers from the smaller schools.

The North Central Association advises that teachers shall not be assigned in excess of five class periods a day and refuses to accredit a school that imposes more than six classes daily. The statistics here given show that 81.3 per cent of the academic teachers are teaching five or less classes a day, that 88.1 per cent of the academic teachers instruct less than 150 pupils daily, and that approximately 60 per cent of the classes taught by the academic teachers are enrolling twenty-five or less pupils each.

More than one-third of all the teachers in the schools approved by the North Central Association are devoting a portion of their

TABLE VIII

	ACADEMIC TEACHERS		VOCATIONAL TEACHERS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Academic training:				
Ph.D. degree.....	184	0.9	66	0.7
M.A. or M.S. degree.....	2,611	12.5	282	2.9
Bachelor's degree.....	16,869	80.9	4,504	45.6
No degree.....	1,193	5.7	4,902	49.6
Not reporting.....			121	1.2
Total.....	20,857	100.0	9,875	100.0
Professional training:				
15 or more hours in education.....	17,279	82.8	6,316	64.0
11-14 hours in education.....	2,668	12.8	1,553	15.7
Some work in education but less than 11 hours.....	683	3.3	1,071	10.8
No work in education.....	204	1.0	643	6.5
Not reporting.....	23	0.1	292	3.0
Total.....	20,857	100.0	9,875	100.0
Apprenticeship experience.....			1,970	19.9
Training in service:				
Attended college on leave since 1920.....	768	3.7	434	4.4
Attended summer session, 1924.....	5,544	26.6	3,114	31.5
Attended summer sessions between 1920 and 1924.....	9,957	47.8	5,449	55.1
Practice teaching:				
Some.....	11,130	53.4		
None.....	8,375	40.1		
Not reporting.....	1,352	6.5		
Total.....	20,857	100.0		
Teaching experience:				
None previous to September, 1924.....	1,444	6.9	650	6.6
1 year.....	1,675	8.0	859	8.7
2-3 years.....	2,866	13.8	1,379	14.0
4-5 years.....	3,278	15.7	1,811	18.3
More than 5 years.....	11,594	55.6	5,176	52.4
Total.....	20,857	100.0	9,875	100.0
Teaching load:				
Less than 5 classes daily.....	5,750	27.6	4,649	47.1
5 classes daily.....	11,195	53.7	3,103	31.4
6 classes daily.....	3,710	17.8	1,800	18.2
More than 6 classes daily.....	193	0.9	323	3.3
Total.....	20,857	100.0	9,875	100.0
Less than 150 pupils daily.....	18,377	88.1	8,552	86.6
More than 150 pupils daily.....	2,480	11.9	1,323	13.4
Total.....	20,857	100.0	9,875	100.0
More than 35 periods a week.....			317	3.2

school time to what may be called extra-curricular activities. This time ranges from one hour a week to somewhat more than five hours a week.

Although there are 111 teachers listed in this study who are receiving a salary of less than \$1,000 a year, approximately 30 per

TABLE IX

	ACADEMIC TEACHERS		VOCATIONAL TEACHERS	
	Number of Classes	Percentage of Classes	Number of Classes	Percentage of Classes
Number of pupils per class:				
20 or less.....	20,114	26.4	14,668	45.6
21-25.....	24,382	32.1	7,812	24.3
26-30.....	23,514	30.9	5,193	16.1
More than 30.....	8,068	10.6	4,485	14.0
Total.....	76,078	100.0	32,158	100.0

TABLE X

	Number of Teachers	Percentage of Teachers
Number of hours a week devoted to extra-curricular activities:		
1.....	4,050	13.2
2.....	2,680	8.7
3.....	1,498	4.9
4.....	556	1.8
5.....	898	2.9
More than 5.....	944	3.1
Total.....	10,626	34.6
Salary:		
\$1,000 or less.....	111	0.3
\$1,001-\$1,250.....	1,083	3.5
\$1,251-\$1,500.....	6,891	22.4
\$1,501-\$1,800.....	8,137	26.5
\$1,801-\$2,000.....	3,617	11.8
\$2,001-\$2,500.....	5,449	17.8
More than \$2,500.....	4,360	14.2
Not reporting.....	1,084	3.5
Total.....	30,732	100.0

cent of the teachers receive in excess of \$2,000. The norm for the entire group seems to range between \$1,500 and \$2,000.

Especially interesting to the casual reader, perhaps, are the elections in the various subjects of the curriculum. Table XI shows

TABLE XI

	Number of Boys Enrolled	Number of Girls Enrolled	Total Number Enrolled	Percentage of School Enrollment	Percentage of Total Enrollment in Department
Mathematics:					
Beginning algebra.....	83,018	78,108	161,126	23.7	42.8
Advanced algebra.....	23,962	15,083	39,045	5.8	10.3
Beginning geometry.....	67,437	62,855	130,292	19.2	34.6
Advanced geometry.....	10,395	4,871	15,266	2.2	4.0
Trigonometry.....	3,592	941	4,533	0.7	1.2
Review or advanced arithmetic.....	4,935	6,919	11,854	1.7	3.1
General mathematics.....	8,025	6,804	14,829	2.2	4.0
Total.....	201,364	175,581	376,945	55.5	100.0
English:					
First year.....	89,481	90,965	180,446	26.6	30.8
Second year.....	85,653	93,147	178,800	26.3	30.5
Third year.....	65,302	73,105	138,407	20.4	23.6
Fourth year.....	40,194	48,121	88,315	13.0	15.1
Total.....	280,630	305,338	585,968	86.3	100.0
Foreign languages:					
Latin:					
First year.....	36,461	42,906	79,367	11.7	48.5
Caesar.....	26,109	34,743	60,852	8.9	37.2
Cicero.....	5,489	8,714	14,203	2.1	8.7
Vergil.....	3,389	5,704	9,093	1.3	5.6
Total.....	71,448	92,067	163,515	24.0	100.0
Greek:					
First year.....	574	224	798	0.1	58.2
Second year.....	391	133	524	0.1	38.2
Third year.....	49	1	50	0.01	3.6
Total.....	1,014	358	1,372	0.21	100.0
French:					
First year.....	12,758	22,362	35,120	5.2	55.3
Second year.....	7,866	15,047	22,913	3.4	36.1
Third year.....	1,393	3,123	4,516	0.7	7.1
Fourth year.....	299	684	983	0.1	1.5
Total.....	22,316	41,216	63,532	9.4	100.0
Spanish:					
First year.....	18,506	18,513	37,019	5.4	59.2
Second year.....	10,085	11,296	21,381	3.1	34.2
Third year.....	1,443	1,700	3,143	0.5	5.0
Fourth year.....	399	624	1,023	0.2	1.6
Total.....	30,433	32,133	62,566	9.2	100.0
German:					
First year.....	2,350	2,222	4,572	0.7	57.8
Second year.....	1,213	1,112	2,325	0.3	29.4
Third year.....	188	170	358	0.1	4.5
Fourth year.....	338	315	653	0.1	8.3
Total.....	4,089	3,819	7,908	1.2	100.0

TABLE XI—Continued

	Number of Boys Enrolled	Number of Girls Enrolled	Total Number Enrolled	Percentage of School Enrollment	Percentage of Total Enrollment in Depart- ment
Social studies:					
Community or vocational civics.....	22,582	23,718	46,300	6.8	11.0
Ancient history.....	35,805	37,710	73,515	10.8	17.4
Modern European history..	35,497	36,008	71,505	10.5	16.9
General history.....	15,815	17,222	33,037	4.9	7.8
United States history.....	52,568	59,762	112,330	16.5	26.6
English history.....	2,898	2,776	5,674	0.8	1.3
Economics.....	13,085	13,466	26,551	3.9	6.3
Sociology.....	5,542	6,438	11,980	1.8	2.8
Advanced civics.....	15,284	17,116	32,400	4.8	7.7
Problems of democracy....	4,470	4,675	9,145	1.4	2.2
Total.....	203,546	218,891	422,437	62.2	100.0
Science:					
Physical geography.....	19,107	16,661	35,768	5.3	12.1
Botany and zoölogy.....	29,693	34,505	64,198	9.4	21.8
Physics.....	37,287	20,390	57,677	8.5	19.6
Chemistry.....	33,885	25,541	59,426	8.8	20.1
General science.....	40,341	37,634	77,975	11.5	26.4
Total.....	160,313	134,731	295,044	43.5	100.0
Commercial work:					
Typewriting.....	27,179	73,900	101,079	14.9	32.7
Stenography.....	12,851	56,840	69,691	10.3	22.5
Bookkeeping.....	24,760	38,574	63,334	9.3	20.5
Commercial arithmetic.....	17,118	25,338	42,456	6.3	13.7
Commercial geography.....	10,849	12,359	23,208	3.4	7.5
Office practice.....	3,024	6,603	9,627	1.4	3.1
Total.....	95,781	213,614	309,395	45.6	100.0
Manual training:					
Ninth grade.....	43,760	553	44,313	6.5	46.8
Tenth grade.....	28,140	183	28,323	4.2	29.9
Eleventh grade.....	13,652	161	13,813	2.0	14.6
Twelfth grade.....	7,958	225	8,183	1.2	8.7
Total.....	93,510	1,122	94,632	13.9	100.0
Household arts:					
Ninth grade.....	162	48,362	48,524	7.1	48.5
Tenth grade.....	181	27,927	28,108	4.1	28.1
Eleventh grade.....	50	13,398	13,448	2.0	13.4
Twelfth grade.....	36	10,040	10,076	1.5	10.0
Total.....	429	99,727	100,156	14.7	100.0
Agriculture:					
Ninth grade.....	6,497	2,148	8,645	1.3	39.6
Tenth grade.....	4,015	1,892	6,807	1.0	31.2
Eleventh grade.....	2,827	1,352	4,179	0.6	19.2
Twelfth grade.....	1,553	628	2,181	0.3	10.0
Total.....	15,792	6,020	21,812	3.2	100.0

TABLE XI—Continued

	Number of Boys Enrolled	Number of Girls Enrolled	Total Number Enrolled	Percentage of School Enrolment	Percentage of Total Enrolment in Department
Music:					
Chorus .....	43,717	65,475	109,192	16.1	50.5
Orchestra .....	15,229	9,638	24,867	3.7	11.5
Band .....	15,149	2,919	18,068	2.6	8.3
Glee club .....	19,156	37,172	56,328	8.3	26.0
Instrumental (individual) ..	3,189	4,749	7,938	1.2	3.7
Total .....	96,440	119,953	216,393	31.9	100.0
Art:					
Ninth grade .....	8,441	11,082	19,523	2.9	43.4
Tenth grade .....	5,074	9,806	14,880	2.2	33.0
Eleventh grade .....	2,427	4,004	6,431	.9	14.3
Twelfth grade .....	1,691	2,505	4,196	.6	9.3
Total .....	17,633	27,397	45,030	6.6	100.0

that 55.5 per cent of the entire enrolment is studying mathematics; 23.7 per cent of the pupils are studying beginning algebra; 19.2 per cent, beginning geometry; and very much smaller percentages, other courses in mathematics.

Of all the pupils, 86.3 per cent are studying English; 24.0 per cent are studying Latin; 0.21 per cent, Greek; 9.4 per cent, French; 9.2 per cent, Spanish; and 1.2 per cent, German. The social studies enrol 62.2 per cent of the pupils; the sciences, 43.5 per cent; commercial work, 45.6 per cent; manual training, 13.9 per cent; household arts, 14.7 per cent; agriculture, 3.2 per cent; music, 31.9 per cent; and art, 6.6 per cent.

A more detailed analysis of the table shows that very many more boys than girls study advanced algebra and trigonometry but that more girls than boys are pursuing advanced arithmetic; that advanced courses in Latin are taken by more girls than boys but that Greek considered in its entirety is studied by many more boys than girls. French is much more popular with girls than with boys, whereas Spanish claims nearly equal numbers of the two sexes. Nevertheless, neither French nor Spanish enrolls as large a percentage of pupils as is sometimes thought to be the case.

In the social studies there is little difference with respect to sex among the elections in the various branches. In science, however,

botany and zoölogy seem to be favored more by girls than by boys, whereas physics and chemistry are pursued by more boys than girls. Commercial work is distinctively a girls' subject; so also is art.

Table XII shows the number of schools offering various types of courses. It is rather interesting to point out that some of the newer subjects are receiving rather notable attention; for example, economics is offered in 42.8 per cent of the schools, sociology in 18.0 per

TABLE XII

	Number of Schools Offering Subject	Percentage of Schools Offering Subject
Trigonometry.....	207	13.2
General mathematics.....	120	7.6
Cicero.....	651	41.4
Vergil.....	531	33.8
Greek.....	17	1.1
French.....	835	53.2
Spanish.....	556	35.4
German.....	111	7.1
Community or vocational civics.....	511	32.5
Ancient history.....	848	54.0
General history.....	311	19.8
English history.....	125	8.0
Economics.....	672	42.8
Sociology.....	282	18.0
Advanced civics.....	618	39.3
Problems of democracy.....	150	9.5
General science.....	883	56.2
Office practice.....	268	17.1
Eleventh- or twelfth-grade manual training.....	570	36.3
Eleventh- or twelfth-grade household arts.....	575	36.6
Agriculture.....	560	35.6
Orchestra or band.....	989	63.0
Individual instruction.....	274	17.4
Art.....	427	27.2

cent, general science in 56.2 per cent, and general mathematics in 7.6 per cent.

Three hundred and twenty-four, or 20.6 per cent, of the schools have had new buildings since the year 1920, and 271 other schools, or 17.3 per cent, have been conspicuously remodeled since that date. Three hundred and twenty-two, or 20.5 per cent, of the schools are overcrowded; 1,505, or 95.8 per cent, are reported to be safe and hygienic. Table XIII shows that 84.5 per cent of the schools have auditoriums, that 82.6 per cent have gymnasiums, and that 10.8 per cent have swimming pools. Other interesting items in the list



given are the provisions for a lunchroom in 53.5 per cent of the schools; a club or collateral activities room in 18.7 per cent of the schools; a boy-scout or girl-scout room in 9.4 per cent of the schools; and an adequate athletic field or playground in connection with 75.4 per cent of the schools.

Nearly every school has a library, in which are found between five hundred and two thousand volumes. Many schools have more

TABLE XIII

	Number of Schools Having	Percentage of Schools Having
Auditorium . . . . .	1,328	84.5
Gymnasium . . . . .	1,298	82.6
Swimming pool . . . . .	169	10.8
Shower baths . . . . .	1,315	83.7
Rest room for pupils . . . . .	670	42.6
Rest room for teachers . . . . .	1,078	68.6
Health-clinic room . . . . .	411	26.2
Library room . . . . .	1,292	82.2
Separate study or session room . . . . .	1,251	79.6
Recreation room . . . . .	353	22.5
Lunchroom . . . . .	841	53.5
Club or activities room . . . . .	293	18.7
Manual-training room . . . . .	1,292	82.2
Home-economics room . . . . .	1,403	89.3
Music room . . . . .	936	59.6
Fine-arts room . . . . .	479	30.5
Boy-scout or girl-scout room . . . . .	148	9.4
Adequate athletic field or playground . . . . .	1,185	75.4
Indoor sanitary toilets . . . . .	1,499	95.4
Sanitary lavatories . . . . .	1,494	95.1
Drinking fountains . . . . .	1,571	100.0
Modern ventilating system . . . . .	1,359	86.5
Furnace heat (steam, water, or air) . . . . .	1,462	93.1
Electric lighting . . . . .	1,519	96.7
Ample fire escapes . . . . .	1,287	81.9
Adjustable seats for pupils . . . . .	803	51.1

than five thousand volumes in the library, and most of the schools provide either a full-time or a part-time librarian. The facts with regard to libraries are shown in Table XIV.

Table XV indicates the value of the equipment found in the high schools approved by the North Central Association.

Table XVI shows that a large percentage of the schools give credit for so-called extra-curricular activities, use a system of honor

TABLE XIV

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Number of volumes in school library:		
500 or less .....	76	4.8
501-1,000 .....	354	22.6
1,001-2,000 .....	473	30.1
2,001-5,000 .....	371	23.6
More than 5,000 .....	209	13.3
Not reporting .....	88	5.6
Total .....	1,571	100.0
Annual appropriation for library:		
0 .....	105	6.7
\$50 or less .....	73	4.6
\$51-\$100 .....	228	14.5
\$101-\$300 .....	539	34.3
\$301-\$500 .....	259	16.5
More than \$500 .....	221	14.1
Not reporting .....	146	9.3
Total .....	1,571	100.0
Having full-time librarian .....	496	31.6
Having part-time librarian .....	865	55.0
Having library used extensively by pupils .....	1,498	95.4

TABLE XV

	Value	Average Value per School
Equipment:		
Principal's office .....	\$ 820,273	\$ 522.13
Gymnasium .....	2,003,049	1,275.02
Health-clinic room .....	296,603	188.80
Playground and athletic fields .....	5,104,126	3,248.96
Manual arts and mechanical drawing .....	7,418,258	4,722.00
Household arts .....	2,766,038	1,760.69
Commercial work .....	2,989,461	1,902.90
Music .....	1,793,171	1,141.42
Fine arts .....	641,982	408.64
Mural and hall art pieces .....	815,412	519.04
Biology (botany and zoölogy) .....	1,237,789	787.89
Physics .....	2,587,318	1,646.92
Chemistry .....	2,103,720	1,339.10
Other sciences combined .....	697,072	443.71
Maps and charts .....	535,911	341.13
Miscellaneous .....	1,935,292	1,231.89
Total .....	\$33,745,475	\$21,480.24

TABLE XVI

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Credit given for:		
Literary-society work .....	214	13.6
Debating .....	583	37.1
Work on high-school paper .....	355	2.6
Student-club work .....	152	9.7
Athletics .....	544	34.6
Orchestra and glee club .....	1,158	73.7
Other extras .....	439	27.9
Pupils encouraged to carry more than four subjects .....	1,423	90.6
Supervised study .....	742	47.2
System of recording term marks:		
Letters .....	771	49.1
Figures .....	766	48.8
System of honor points .....	422	26.9
School membership in:		
National Honor Society .....	248	15.8
Some honor society .....	153	9.7
Pupils permitted to be members of secret societies .....	102	6.5
Pupil self-government organizations .....	618	39.3
Teacher-pupil councils .....	906	57.7
Paid physical director for boys .....	958	61.0
Paid physical director for girls .....	853	54.3
Paid physical director for boys and girls .....	192	12.2
Paid school physician .....	209	13.3
Paid school dentist .....	100	6.4
Paid school nurse .....	510	32.5
Paid school athletic coach .....	1,253	79.8
Principal favoring sixty-minute class period .....	761	48.4
Fewer classes assigned to inexperienced teachers than to experienced teachers .....	733	46.7
Same salary schedule for elementary-school teachers and high-school teachers .....	281	17.9
School paper .....	1,013	64.5
Football team .....	1,349	85.9
Baseball team .....	875	55.7
Indoor baseball team:		
Boys .....	456	29.0
Girls .....	368	23.4
Track team .....	1,206	76.8
Hockey team .....	139	8.8
Tennis team:		
Boys .....	573	36.5
Girls .....	415	26.4
Swimming team:		
Boys .....	156	9.9
Girls .....	98	6.2
Debating team:		
Boys .....	256	16.3
Girls .....	173	11.0
Mixed .....	866	55.1
Band:		
Boys .....	399	25.4
Girls .....	36	2.3
Mixed .....	272	17.3

TABLE XVI—*Continued*

	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Orchestra:		
Boys.....	153	9.7
Girls.....	78	5.0
Mixed.....	1,137	72.4
Glee club:		
Boys.....	877	55.8
Girls.....	1,073	68.3
Mixed.....	464	29.5
Military cadets.....	83	5.3
School troop of scouts:		
Boys.....	244	15.5
Girls.....	176	11.2
Hi-Y team:		
Boys.....	361	23.0
Girls.....	266	16.9

points for quality of work, and make provision for some form of student self-government and teacher-pupil councils. In many of the school systems the same salary schedule operates for elementary-school teachers and high-school teachers of like training and experience.

### THREE PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE ADMINISTRATION OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

GERTRUDE JONES  
Lincoln High School, Lincoln, Nebraska

The control of the extra-curricular life of a high school is successful only when it is a matter of mutual co-operation between the faculty and the pupils. Pure faculty control is autocracy; pure student control often results in anarchy, neither of which has a place in a democracy. Faculty guidance with student co-operation means true democracy in the control of the social life of the school. After all, student co-operation is merely an extension into the extra-curricular field of the idea of supervised study and of the laboratory method of instruction, in that student co-operation is supervised training in citizenship. If we wish to teach printing, we take the boys into the printshop, where they are given the opportunity, under expert guidance, to learn printing by printing. We do not teach girls to cook by giving them recipe books to read or by talking to them about cooking. Similarly, can we expect to train boys and girls to live in a community if we do not make the school community a laboratory in which they may learn to feel, think, and act co-operatively through practice in real situations? Or, we may think of the principle of student co-operation as being an extension of the socialized-recitation idea, in that it encourages every pupil to "get into the game" and makes him feel his personal responsibility for its success.

The principle of student co-operation is easier to talk about and to argue for than to administer successfully. However, if handled properly, it will develop a social atmosphere within the school without which a social point of view is impossible. It will develop within the pupils the ability to think about community problems. It will give them a sense of personal responsibility for fair play and for unselfish service. It will help them to become increasingly self-directed.

It will place the teacher-pupil relationship on a more sympathetic basis.

Student co-operation should not be thrust upon a school too suddenly. First of all, the faculty must believe in it. The pupils must understand the principle and be ready for it. Following this period of preparation is one of organization, during which the machinery is set up and put into motion. Running parallel to these two periods and continuing as long as the principle of student co-operation is in effect, there must be constant education in order that the purposes, ideals, and possibilities of student co-operation may be kept before the student body and the faculty.

In 1916 the faculty committee on student affairs in the Lincoln High School appointed seven girls and seven boys from the two upper classes, representing the various interests of the school, to act with the principal as a provisional student council. Their work for the first year consisted chiefly of developing a plan for a permanent council. Under this plan each of the sixty-seven home rooms elects one of its members to serve in the Home Room Representative Body. The home-room representatives elect five of their number to serve with the principal and two members of the faculty committee on student affairs in nominating candidates for the student council. Nominations are made by this committee from among the Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors. Every member of the student body and of the faculty may vote on the candidates, twice as many being nominated as are to be elected. Preceding the election a campaign of education is carried on in the home rooms and in the English and civics classes in order that the pupils may vote intelligently.

The student council, which is elected to serve for one year, consists of twenty-two members—six senior boys, six senior girls, three junior boys, three junior girls, one sophomore boy, one sophomore girl, a representative from the staff of the school paper, and the captain of the athletic team in season. The officers of the council are elected by the council to serve for one semester. The president and the vice-president must be Seniors. If the president is a boy, the vice-president must be a girl, and vice versa.

The student council communicates with the student body through the home-room representatives and by means of bulletins.

It is clearly important that the pupils should use great care in the selection of members of both of these groups. There is coming to be a feeling among the pupils and the faculty that some machinery should be set up whereby a home-room representative or a student-council member could be recalled if he should fail to render service to the school.

Problems may be suggested to the student council by the student body, by the faculty, or by members of the council. The council should have a faculty adviser, and it should be allowed to undertake only such problems as it can handle. Someone has said regarding student councils, "Do not expect too much of your student council, and, by all means, do not expect too little."

Space will permit mention of only a few of the results of faculty and student co-operation in the Lincoln High School. The student council has always endeavored to arouse the interest of the pupils in the care of the building and the grounds. It tries to make each pupil feel his personal responsibility for staying on the sidewalks and for conducting himself properly in the corridors, on the stairs, and in the cafeteria lines. The council looks after the comfort of the student body. As a result of its efforts, soap pumps have been installed in the lavatories, and the street-car service to the building has been materially improved. The council has interested itself in the organizations and the traditions of the school. School-color day, which was instituted in 1917, is a student-council project. The council provides streamers, caps, and arm bands, which are sold to the pupils by the home-room representatives. For two days preceding the big football game the school is a riot of red and black. The council conducts an assembly for the school, and school spirit and school loyalty are at a high pitch.

The student council has sponsored five carnivals, the proceeds of which have gone to establish the student fund which is used to finance such activities as are not provided for in the budget of the board of education. It pays any expense connected with the assemblies, and it has been drawn upon to help finance debate. Two large trophy cases, a memorial tablet for former students who lost their lives in the war, a projection machine, parts for the motion-picture machine, and other gifts to the school have been made possible by



this fund. Any bill paid from this fund must first be approved by the faculty committee on student affairs.

Perhaps the most outstanding result of student and faculty co-operation in the Lincoln High School is the Oval, a \$21,000 stadium built in 1923. With a committee from the faculty a group of student-council members appeared before the board of education to ask its permission to undertake the project, although the board was not to finance it. The consent of the board secured, the council outlined the proposition to the pupils. When it was finally voted upon, there were only about a dozen negative votes. Forty business men of Lincoln lent the school their credit, and a member of the board of education acts as trustee of the fund. In a little over a year \$13,885.05 of the debt of \$21,000 was paid. The funds were secured through contributions from the various organizations and from the treasuries of classes which have graduated. The regular calendar of school events was in no way enlarged to secure more money. For the success of this project much credit is due the principal, H. P. Shepherd. The Oval makes it possible for football games to be played on the school grounds. Every day that weather conditions permit it is in use for the intramural athletic program, besides furnishing additional dressing-room and locker space.

Perhaps all the projects which have been cited as examples of student and faculty co-operation might have been accomplished by the faculty alone or by the pupils alone. After all, however, it is not the result that counts so much as it is the training which the participants receive in attaining the result. This training the faculty does not need. The pupils are not capable of training themselves. This training can come only as a result of pupil initiative and faculty guidance.

A plan of student-council organization need not be permanent. Just now the pupils and the council of the Lincoln High School are realizing that the council is not as effective as it should be. As a result of assemblies and discussions in the home rooms and classes, the activities and the possibilities of the student council are being weighed with a view to constructive action. It may be that this will result in the revision of the constitution of the student council, which would be an educative process in itself.

A second principle underlying the administration of extra-curricular activities is that no activity has a place in such a program which does not contribute in some way to one of the objectives of secondary education. This principle demands that a survey be made of existing activities with a view to repressing those which are undesirable. For every undesirable activity that is repressed there should be substituted an activity, worked out co-operatively by teachers and pupils, which will be satisfactory to the teachers and satisfying to the pupils.

The past eight years have seen a marked change in the social program of the Lincoln High School. In September, 1916, it had approximately fourteen hundred pupils, seven Greek-letter fraternities, besides a number of local clubs which were more or less secret, four so-called "literary" societies for girls, two debating clubs and one scientific society for boys, and several departmental clubs. The high-school fraternity is not worthy of a place in any extra-curricular program because it does not contribute in any way to the objectives of secondary education. In fact, it is the most pernicious influence in high-school life. Proof can be summoned to show that the high-school fraternity is a hotbed of snobbery and exclusiveness; that it indulges in extravagance; that it sets up false standards; that it controls class elections and membership on athletic teams; that it resorts to the lowest sort of politics; that it stands aloof from legitimate school activities; and that it lowers the standards of scholarship, regularity, and attendance. The high-school fraternity does more to neutralize and to overthrow the ideals of civic life which the school endeavors to uphold than does any other force in the life of the high-school youth. Certain types of societies for girls exert the same influence. The four "literary" societies which have been mentioned had been truly purposeful when they were first organized, but they had been allowed to degenerate into snobbish cliques which vied with one another in giving elaborate parties at down-town hotels. They "rushed" girls who would make desirable members because of their social positions, wealth, automobiles, or beautiful homes. Failure to "make" one of these societies was the cause of much unhappiness among the girls, some of whom actually dropped out of school on account of it.

There are just two steps in the handling of the high-school fraternity problem. The first is to enforce the state law if there is one or to obtain such a law if there is none. The second is to launch a democratic social program in the school which will be educationally fit and psychologically satisfying. Today the Lincoln High School has an enrolment of more than two thousand pupils. Fraternities and purely social clubs have been banished, and for them have been substituted worth-while, democratic clubs. For the valiant fight against the fraternities and for the constructive social program which was launched in 1916 credit is due Fred M. Hunter, Jesse H. Newlon, and Frank G. Pickell, who were serving the school as administrators during that period.

At the time the social clubs were abolished in the Lincoln High School, the presidents were called into the principal's office for a conference. Several of the girls stated that their clubs were difficult to manage because of the lack of a purpose sufficiently worth while to arouse the interest of the members and to unite them. These girls helped to initiate the new clubs and became good workers in them. Some of the former fraternity boys entered whole-heartedly into the activities of the democratic clubs.

At the present time, of the 2,062 pupils enrolled, 1,967 are members of some high-school club. The clubs represent the following interests: music, public speaking, athletics, dramatics, writing, art, normal training, chemistry, household arts, and zoölogy. The Y.W.C.A. sponsors a club for the freshman girls and another for the girls of the three upper classes. The Hi-Y Club, sponsored by the Y.M.C.A., has its own clubhouse, across the street from the high-school building.

The Orpheons, a musical club, purchased uniforms for the band and a grand piano for the school with money realized from concerts and operas. The Forum, a club devoted to public speaking, sponsors the freshman cup contest, the purpose of which is to arouse among the incoming pupils interest in public speaking. The Girls' Athletic Association enables the girls of the school to win an "L" by earning one thousand points for participation in various sports. The All Girls' League is an auxiliary of the student council and is presided over by the highest girl officer in the council. Every girl in the school

is automatically a member of the All Girls' League, the purpose of which is to further girls' activities in the school and to give the girls an opportunity to solve their own problems. The council of the All Girls' League, which is selected from the school at large by the girl members of the student council, conducts mass meetings for the girls, looks after the student donations at Thanksgiving and Christmas, and plans a style show each spring at which the dresses made in the sewing classes are exhibited. The members of the council act as "big sisters" to girls new to the school. The council arranges for one party each semester for all the girls of the school. These are in the nature of "kid" parties or "hard-times" parties so that there is no distinction between the dress of the richest and the poorest girls. These parties are anticipated with the keenest pleasure by the girls because an opportunity is provided for them to meet on the same basis and to have a good time together.

The Lincoln High School needs more clubs which will appeal to the Freshmen. Last school year a definite plan was developed in the freshman home rooms of acquainting the incoming pupils with the activities, customs, and traditions of the school. As a result of this plan, the Freshmen, after a study of the existing clubs, petitioned the student council to organize more clubs for Freshmen.

Any group of pupils wishing to form a new club submits a statement of their purpose and plan to the faculty committee on student affairs. If the committee reacts favorably to the suggestion, the group is given permission to draw up a constitution for the approval of the committee. The principal thereupon appoints two faculty sponsors for the organization.

Membership in all student activities is open to every member of the school on a try-out basis. Once a pupil becomes a member of an organization, he continues to be a member so long as he pays his dues, which are nominal, and takes an active part in the program of the organization. He is automatically dropped from membership if he is absent from three meetings without good excuse, and he cannot regain admission except by try-out. This regulation works to prevent a pupil from becoming a "jiner." On severing their connection with the high school, pupils cease to be members of any high-school organization. Alumni members may arouse dissatisfaction

within a group if they are allowed to participate in its affairs after they are no longer under the jurisdiction of the faculty. The alumni are allowed to attend certain meetings during the year with the consent of the sponsors.

The successful control of clubs must be co-operative. Uniform rules should govern the time and place of meeting, dues, social affairs, and so forth. In the Lincoln High School all club meetings and parties must be held in the high-school building. Each organization may give one party or banquet each semester. Meetings are sponsored by teachers; parties, by teachers and parents. Freshman and sophomore parties must be held in the daytime. Evening parties may be held only on Friday and Saturday and must close at eleven o'clock. Only members of an organization may attend its meetings and social affairs. The cost of the parties must be borne by those attending and may not exceed twenty-five cents a person. These rules were formulated by a committee of teachers and pupils.

Parties have no place in the social program of a high school unless they contribute positively to the growth of the pupils. For this reason, they should be treated as projects in instruction. This means that the parties should be initiated, projected, organized, and finally evaluated by the pupils.

There is always danger in a program of extra-curricular activities that certain pupils will be too active as compared with others. Therefore, a point system or some scheme of rating activities is imperative. In the Lincoln High School a committee of teachers and pupils worked out such a scheme. The introductory paragraph of their report, which was written by the student members of the committee, is quoted.

The high school has been criticized by parents who state that their sons and daughters are participating in so many activities aside from their regular curriculum that their regular school work has been neglected. Many pupils have complained that a few pupils are holding the major offices of the school. The extra-curricular activities of the school are intended to afford experience and opportunity for all the pupils of the school. It is undemocratic for a few to monopolize them. In view of these facts, the committee has been prompted to draw up the following classification of offices and to limit the number which one student may hold.

Then follows the classification, which is based on the number of

hours required each semester to fulfil the duties of the various offices. The student body and the faculty voted to accept the plan.

The substitution of worth-while clubs for undesirable ones has been mentioned. In two instances in the Lincoln High School it has been shown that "freak" events can likewise be replaced with something more desirable.

For sixteen years it was customary for each senior class to celebrate "slouch" day early in the first semester. The tattered and outlandish costumes which the Seniors wore led to rowdyism and upset the school work for a whole day. Each class tried to outdo its predecessor, until their performances became vulgar rather than low comedy. Consequently, the class of 1917 and its sponsors substituted senior color day for "slouch" day, an idea which each succeeding class has adopted. Senior color day is scheduled within the first six weeks of the first semester. The day opens with an assembly for the school. The Seniors, wearing caps and carrying their class colors, enter after the other pupils are seated. The program, which is given by senior talent, is presided over by the senior president. Following the assembly, classes are conducted as usual, but the Seniors are allowed to wear their colors throughout the day. The under-class men respect the rights of the Seniors, and color snatching is not thought of. The day closes with a banquet served at cost in the cafeteria, followed by a party. Thus, "slouch" day, a disorderly and disturbing event, which tended to break down the morale of the school, has been replaced by an event which is beautiful, inspiring, and dignified.

Rivalry between the two upper classes in a high school is traditional. This spirit becomes more apparent as the close of school approaches, and it often leads to class fights. In the Lincoln High School these fights came on the senior picnic day, known to the pupils as senior "skip" day. This day of vacation was granted to the Seniors by the faculty, who tried to conduct classes for the rest of the school but without much success. In 1919 the class fight assumed such proportions that the faculty abolished the senior picnic day, since the school could not afford to sponsor an event that led to rowdyism. It was made clear, however, that the pupils were



privileged to work out a plan whereby the superiority of the two upper classes might be decided in an organized manner. A committee of six senior boys and six junior boys, from the classes of 1920 and 1921, respectively, worked out such a plan and appeared before the faculty to ask its approval and permission to try out the scheme. The first trial proved to be such a success that the plan has become a tradition. The Olympics are held late in May and are witnessed by the entire school, the board of education granting a day's vacation for the event. Only bona fide Juniors and Seniors may participate. The management is shared by the faculty and the classes concerned. The referee, announcers, and score-keepers are chosen from outside the school, but no spectators from outside the school are admitted. Try-outs are held for the various events, the classes being assisted by the athletic coaches. The boys' events are boxing, wrestling, baseball and football throws, color relay race, tug of war, battle royal, push-rod contest, dashes, and the color rush. The girls' events are the baseball throw, color relay race, and tug of war. Good organization characterizes the day. No one is allowed on the field except the members of the committee, the contestants, and the judges. There are no rowdyism, no confusion, no delays. Some years the Juniors have won, some years the Seniors; but, whatever the outcome, the losers are always satisfied with the result because they know that it is fair. Each of the classes may hold a picnic in the afternoon if it so desires. The Seniors always hold a picnic at which the junior president and the junior members of the Olympics committee are guests of honor. The follow-up events of the Olympics are the junior-senior party given by the Juniors and the peace conference staged at the senior class day assembly, at which the presidents of the two classes sign the treaty of peace.

The Olympics are a success because the plan is a product of student thought which the pupils are allowed to execute with faculty guidance. The pupils assume responsibility for their own actions, and they are brought to a realization of the importance of fair play and co-operation in any group undertaking. In 1924, when several Seniors violated the spirit of the Olympics by kidnapping several Juniors a few days before the event, the senior class sent a committee to a meeting of the junior class to apologize for the occurrence. The



senior class also asked the faculty to punish the offenders by barring them from further participation in senior events.

A third principle underlying the administration of extra-curricular activities is that the school should provide a definite scheme to insure uniformity in the care of funds of student activities and in the sale of tickets to school events. It is not consistent to require that all student activities have a worthy purpose and that their meetings and social affairs be controlled by uniform rules and at the same time to allow haphazard financial methods. Young people must be made to feel that the offices of treasurer and business manager carry with them large responsibility for absolute accuracy and integrity. They must expect to render an account to those who have placed confidence in them.

Previous to the autumn of 1920 there was no definite way in the Lincoln High School of controlling the care of funds or ticket sales. Each activity worked out its own plan. By means of a plan used by one of the sponsors in checking up on the ticket sales of a play, it was found that the business manager had pocketed more than thirty dollars. The investigation of this matter revealed the fact that pupils in the past had not always dealt honestly with the school. Such actions on the part of an individual cannot be justified. Neither can the school justify itself for making carelessness or dishonesty in such matters possible. On investigating the financial methods employed by the various activities, it was found that a few of them did not possess a treasurer's book. Several books did not balance. Only a few of the treasurers banked their funds, and these seldom called for their monthly statements. One treasurer kept his money in a baking-powder can. None of the treasurers could state even approximately the resources of the activity which he represented. Such conditions are to be expected if financial regulations are lacking.

In the autumn of 1920 an auditing committee was appointed to work out a plan for handling funds and the sale of tickets. To be successful, any such scheme must have the support of the administration, and in this respect the Lincoln High School has been unusually fortunate. The plan was first presented to Superintendent M. C. Lefler and the board of education for their approval. The sponsors were then given an opportunity to make suggestions. The

sponsors should feel that such a plan in no way hampers them but relieves them of much responsibility. The pupils should understand that such a scheme is not a trap but rather a means of protecting them and of training them in the use of acceptable business methods. The auditing committee should remember at all times that they are working not with tickets and money but with boys and girls and that the main issue is the training of these young people.

The rules of the auditing committee require that all money received by an organization be deposited in the Lincoln High School bank, which is in the charge of a teacher who is bonded and who is given a free period for this work. The account of each activity is kept separate in the school bank, although the funds are deposited in one account in a down-town bank. Genuine banking methods are used, from identification cards to monthly statements. When an activity wishes to draw upon its funds, the auditor writes a check for the amount upon receipt of a voucher bearing the sponsor's signature. Thus, pupils cannot spend the money of an organization without the sponsor's knowledge and consent. The voucher, bill, and canceled check are kept on file. The individual ledger sheet makes it possible to declare the resources of an activity at a glance. In four years more than \$120,000 has been deposited in the school bank. The amount of money handled during a year by student activities is not realized until some such scheme makes it apparent. The Lincoln High School student-activity program is not an extravagant one. The admission charge to all plays, operas, concerts, and parties is limited to twenty-five cents. Admission to athletic events does not exceed twenty-five cents if a pupil buys a season ticket, and it is often much less.

The auditing committee controls the sale of tickets to school events. The sponsor and the business manager order the number of tickets desired from the chairman of the auditing committee, who gives the order to the school printshop. After the tickets have been numbered serially and audited, they are delivered to the business manager, who checks them out to his committee of salesmen. The business manager must account for every ticket which he receives. Results have proved that pupils can accept responsibility in such matters and that they can manage large committees of fellow-pupils.

Such a scheme means a large expenditure of energy and time. In the first place, the plan must be leakproof. The committee cannot afford to be careless in checking up on the pupils because one slip would cause the pupils to lose faith in the scheme. A plan of this sort is worth while if it awakens within the pupils a sense of responsibility for the performance of duties which have been intrusted to them, to say nothing of the satisfaction of being able to know definitely the financial status of every activity in the school.

The Lincoln High School does not claim to have a perfect system of extra-curricular activities. It is merely endeavoring to build its social program on a foundation which is educationally sound. What has proved successful there might not work in other schools on account of the makeup of the school and the social problems of the community. Whatever form the extra-curricular activities of a school may take, however, the principles of student co-operation, substitution of worth-while activities for undesirable ones, and financial control are fundamental.

## THE DEPARTMENT HEAD

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FRANKLIN W. JOHNSON  
Teachers College, Columbia University

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The rapid increase in enrolment is the most obvious and outstanding fact in the present high-school situation. The recent statistical report of the Bureau of Education shows that in 1922 the average high school enrolled 178 pupils. Ten years ago the average enrolment was under one hundred. While the problems of instruction in the classroom have not been directly affected by the increase in total registration, the problems of organization, administration, and supervision have become vastly more complicated and important. Among these may be cited, by way of illustration, the enlargement of the curriculum to meet the needs of pupils from a wider social range, the adaptation of the materials of instruction to pupils of widely differing abilities, the classification of pupils according to their abilities, the organization and control of the social activities of the pupils so that these activities may contribute to the objectives of secondary education, and the improvement of teachers in service so that the instruction of the classroom may yield maximum results.

The changed position of the principal from that of a teacher among teachers to one involving the need of a highly trained organizer and professional leader has been frequently commented upon. Principals are urged, in courses in administration, to delegate routine duties to clerks or other members of their staffs, and some attempt is made to set up a program to bring this about. The average principal, however, is likely to go home from a summer session with little besides a higher sense of the importance of his position and rather vague resolutions to act the part but with no very clear ideas as to what he is going to do to remedy conditions. When the new school year begins and he finds himself again in the bewildering whirl of details, he is likely to settle back into the old routine and to think

that professors of education would not talk as they do if they had to put their teaching into practice.

Progress is being made, however. Increased clerical service is being secured, and better office practice results. Assistant principals furnish relief in many cases. Particularly helpful is the dean of girls, for whose training specific courses are provided in many institutions. The department head, however, offers the most available and most promising source from which to draw the needed reinforcement.

In the first place, it is easier to secure changes which do not involve immediate additions to the staff. To be sure, the department head needs more freedom from teaching than he has in most schools, but this can be expected to follow as the importance of the position develops. Moreover, because of his acquaintance with the material and methods of his subject and the intimate contact which he has with the teachers in his department, there is no one who can so effectively undertake the supervision and improvement of individual teachers as the well-trained department head. In a school of four hundred or more pupils it is practically impossible for the principal to give the time necessary for detailed and effective supervision. This should be done by the department head under the general direction of the principal.

Prevailing practice does not reveal a recognition of the importance of the position. In most schools of sufficient size there are permanent department heads, but in many cases the position is only a nominal one, with little responsibility beyond caring for routine details. Even where one is told by the principal that the department heads supervise instruction in their respective departments, investigation usually shows that their supervision is inadequate or even negligible. In some large cities departmental chairmen are elected annually by the subject groups. While it is claimed for this practice that it is more democratic, one suspects that economy in the salary budget is its real justification. This casual method of dealing with the position neither provides desirable continuity in departmental procedure nor insures strong leadership. If the position is regarded as desirable, friction may develop in connection with the election. If, as is possible, the position is regarded as adding extra duties without a corresponding salary increase, the situation is little better. In

any case, this practice shows an inadequate conception of the functions of the department head.

The requirements for a successful department head should include teaching ability of a high order. On the personality side should be capacity and aptitude for leadership. The department head should, of course, have broad training in the field of his special subject. In addition, his professional training should be wider than that of the ordinary teacher. He should have clear ideas of the general aims of secondary education and be familiar with the problems of organization and control of the high school. Particularly should he be trained in the technique of supervision. Special courses for department heads are needed in our teacher-training institutions, for the position should be a highly specialized one.

An analysis of the duties which the department head may perform should be helpful to the principal as he undertakes to lay out a comprehensive program for the management of his school. It should also be valuable for those who already hold the position or hope to do so. These duties may be classified under two general headings, administrative and supervisory.

Under the first are included the relations with the principal. The department head will become acquainted with the policies of the principal and interpret these to the members of his department. Indeed, he will share with the principal and the other department heads in formulating the policies of the school. In some well-organized schools the department heads form the principal's cabinet, which meets at regular and frequent intervals. The value of this practice in unifying and co-ordinating the aims and work of the different departments is obvious. It is most important to resist the divisive tendency of departmental organization and to replace competition with co-operation between departments. Such a group can also take up in preliminary discussion and reduce to definite form many matters which will later be brought before the entire teaching staff. It is thus possible to avoid much of the diffuse and aimless discussion that frequently marks faculty meetings and to raise the general staff meetings to a real professional level. The cabinet, composed of the more permanent members of the staff, also serves as a stabilizing body and makes for continuity of policy from year to year.

The department heads will also keep the principal informed as to the progress and needs of their departments. It is to be assumed that the principal is interested in whatever goes on in his school and is glad to give advice and encouragement to the progressive members of his staff. The wise department head, however, will avoid taking too much of the principal's time in rambling, circumstantial conferences and will form the habit of submitting carefully written reports which can form the basis of profitable interviews when these are necessary. Many teachers have discovered that they can usually get what they want if their needs are expressed in written form and the principal needs only to add a memorandum of his approval.

Considerable responsibility should be given the department head in dealing with the teachers in his department. It may not be wise or possible to extend this to the selection of new teachers, but he may well be consulted and given the privilege of approval before recommendation is made. He might even be sent to observe a candidate at work. Whatever is done to increase the responsibility of the department head in this regard is likely to be reflected in the better professional tone of the department. Much greater latitude may be given with respect to the retention, promotion, and discharge of teachers. Here the department head is in a better position to judge of the teachers' fitness than the principal. In the assignment of teachers there are many fine questions of adjustment which can best be settled by the department head, whose recommendations should be followed, wherever possible, by the schedule-maker. The principal will be relieved of much time-consuming detail if the teachers regard the department heads as their immediate superiors and deal with them in matters of ordinary routine.

The administrative duties of the department head include provision for the laboratory and library equipment needed by his department. He should keep himself informed with regard to the material offered by publishers and school-supply houses and should make explicit requests for the purchase of usable material. He should realize that the likelihood of securing what he asks will depend on his good judgment as to the need of the equipment and on the extent to which previous purchases have proved serviceable. There is also the task of seeing that the necessary textbooks are



ordered early enough to avoid the confusion which results when orders are delayed or carelessly checked. A well-arranged system of departmental records also falls under his care, as well as the responsibility for seeing that the teachers in his group make promptly and accurately the reports required by the central office.

Another administrative duty of the department head has to do with the extra-classroom activities which are coming to occupy so large a place in the instruction of the school. Some forms of these activities have no direct relation to any department. Others, however, are very closely related to particular courses of instruction and are recognized as valuable for vitalizing classroom work and for furnishing opportunities for the application of classroom teaching in a natural social environment. Each department should undertake, with consideration for the general plan of the school, to secure the utmost possible value from these social activities.

Under the supervisory duties of the department head are included those which have to do with the improvement of teaching. Supervision in a broad sense must be dealt with from three points of view: (1) the materials of instruction, (2) the methods of instruction, and (3) the results of instruction.

The materials and methods of instruction should be determined on the basis of the objectives to be attained. A consideration of aims, then, is fundamental to supervision. It is assumed that in a good high school the general aims have been clearly stated and accepted as valid by the entire staff. It is the duty of the department head to see that the materials and methods of instruction are adapted to the attainment of these aims. Few subjects may contribute directly to all the aims set up, but each should contribute in an outstanding degree to at least one of them. All the members of a department should have a clear understanding of the general aims, and together they should determine the specific objectives which the teaching of their subject may be expected to attain. Effort should be made to avoid the vague generalities which so often characterize the discussion of aims and to set up attainable goals for instruction. A commonplace truth should be kept in mind—no one hits a mark, except by accident, unless he aims at it. The formulation of attainable aims which will actually guide in the choice of materials and

methods of instruction is no easy task and will require a high quality of leadership. The effort, persistently carried through, will be justified by the results.

In the main, the choice of materials for instruction resolves itself into the selection of textbooks. Sometimes the choice of a text is entirely beyond the reach of the individual department head, but, wherever possible, he should have the privilege of recommendation, which should assure adoption. Even where texts are prescribed by outside authority, considerable latitude is possible in the use to be made of them, and, happily, a good teacher may secure good results with a poor text.

The adjustment of the courses offered to various controls outside the school, to the courses of other departments, to the needs and resources of the community, and to the varying needs and abilities of the pupils themselves is a problem of major importance, in the solution of which the department head must share with the principal and in some parts of which he has the major responsibility.

Among the outside controls are the regulations of the state regarding the curriculum and the requirements of colleges and other institutions to which graduates of the school will go. With all these the department head should be familiar, and he should see that the courses in his department satisfy the requirements. Of no less importance is a knowledge of the work of the lower schools from which the pupils come and a careful co-ordination of the work with what has gone before in order that there shall be no waste through unnecessary repetition or wrong assumption as to the previous training which the pupils have received.

Reference has been made to the divisive tendency of departmental organization. Great gain may be secured in motivation of courses and in the results of instruction by breaking down the artificial barriers which have separated the different subjects. This fact is generally recognized, but, for the most part, the attempts at correction have been perfunctory and sterile of results. Here is an important problem for department heads who are broadly trained and who set out seriously to lead their teachers.

The adaptation of the courses to the needs and resources of the community is a problem of the entire curriculum, for which the

principal is directly responsible. If it is successfully solved, however, the department head must understand the nature of the problem and the principles which apply to its solution and must see that the courses offered in his department are organized and taught in such a way as to achieve the desired ends. The adjustment of instruction to the varying abilities of pupils, on the other hand, is largely a teaching problem. The department head should be thoroughly acquainted with the tests and other means used in the classification of pupils and should realize that when these administrative devices have been employed, it remains for him and his group to do the rest. What remains is the more important part.

The department head should feel himself responsible for developing the individual ability and assisting the professional growth of the members of his department. This can be accomplished in various ways. Frequent and regular departmental meetings devoted to professional discussions furnish means of steady growth. The individual conference following the observation of classroom teaching is another means. Teachers should be encouraged to do professional reading and to take professional courses during the summer or at other times when possible. The undertaking of a carefully conducted experiment in method or in the use of new material furnishes an unusual opportunity for growth either of an individual or of a group. Teachers should be assigned to classes with a view to the promotion of their development and should be given a large degree of freedom in the organization and conduct of their work. In this they should be required only to keep in mind the objectives to be sought and to prove their own effectiveness by the measurable results secured. It is important that due recognition should be given for notable achievement. Every teacher should feel that her department head is anxious to secure her promotion in the school or even to assist her to secure a better position in another school.

The most immediately effective means of improving instruction is direct observation of classroom teaching followed by individual or group discussion. The department head should have sufficient freedom from teaching to visit teachers frequently and should follow a systematic program of observation. He should work out a careful technique which may be based on professional courses in

supervision and the available literature, both of which he will need to adapt to the conditions in which he finds himself. It is often advisable to connect the discussions of the departmental meetings with the observations, stressing those matters which seem to be most in need of improvement. It is possible for the department head to do demonstration teaching before some or all of his teachers. As such demonstrations are likely to occur under more or less abnormal conditions in the ordinary school, it is usually better to have individual teachers visit strong teachers at their regular work either in the same school or in other schools. These demonstrations or observations should always be followed by discussion with the individual or the group in order to make sure that the desired result has been secured. It may be added that the practice in some schools of having visiting days on which the work of the entire school is suspended to allow the teachers to visit other schools is likely to be most wasteful, as it is practically impossible to direct the visiting with discrimination and to follow it with definitely helpful discussion.

The department head must keep constantly in mind the fact that supervision and inspection are not the same thing. He is not greatly concerned with rating teachers for promotion; this is only an incidental by-product. If this has a prominent place in the mind of supervisor or teacher, misunderstanding and resentment are sure to arise. If, on the other hand, the real purpose of supervision, the improvement of teachers in service, is clearly grasped, mutual understanding and co-operation will result.

The third phase of supervision is the measuring of results. If supervision results in the improvement of instruction, the amount of improvement can be determined. It is not sufficient to draw subjective conclusions as to the results; valid conclusions can be reached only by careful quantitative measurements. The department head should be sufficiently trained in the use of standard tests and in the handling of statistics to test the results rigidly. Subject-matter tests are available in many subjects, and others are rapidly appearing which, when standardized by use, will furnish reliable instruments for measuring school products. Careful records of achievement should be made at stated intervals, by which the work of the differ-

ent teachers may be compared and the relative effectiveness of different forms of subject matter or different methods of instruction determined. The program of supervision of the entire school should be summed up in a body of statistics by which the progress of each department may be determined from year to year and objective comparisons of the effectiveness of the different departments made.

The justification for the proposals made in this article seems to rest on clear thinking about the objectives of the high school and the methods of their attainment. The school exists only that pupils may be taught. The sole purpose of administrative direction and control is to secure better teaching. The schools are becoming too large and too complicated in their organization for the principal, even if he were sufficiently expert, to handle alone the work of administration and supervision. The department heads are in a position to relieve him of many duties of administration and to give the expert and detailed supervision for which he has usually neither the time nor the training. Two things are necessary to bring this about: a recognition of the possibilities of the position of the department head and the securing of persons specially trained for the duties involved.

## PHYSICAL TRAINING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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HARRY P. CLARKE

Director of Physical Education, Winnetka, Illinois

WILLARD W. BEATTY

Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Winnetka, Illinois

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The advent of the junior high school has introduced new problems and new possibilities in the field of physical training. The setting apart of early adolescent boys and girls has at last drawn our attention to their needs and at the same time given us an opportunity to meet those needs. In recognition of this fact a new program of physical activities was put into effect at the Skokie School in Winnetka three years ago. This program marks a radical departure from much of the current practice and has met with such success that we believe our procedure will be of interest to others in the same field.

The Skokie School is a junior high school consisting of the seventh and eighth grades. The school has an enrolment of about 270 pupils. It is coeducational, the number of boys and girls being about equal. The classes are departmentalized and follow a modified platoon plan. The playground is therefore in use constantly for groups of from sixty to seventy-five pupils. The boys and girls are segregated for their playground activities because of their different interests. Routine adjustments have also made it more convenient for a woman to handle the girls' play periods and a man the boys' play periods, although during one year a man handled both sexes with complete success.

In the matter of physical equipment, the school is fortunate. The total playground area is about eight acres. A rectangular space 100×200 feet is surfaced and artificially drained so that it is available under almost any weather conditions, except during actual rain or snow storms. An additional space sufficiently large to provide a football and hockey field has been turfed and is maintained in rea-

sonably good condition. Other areas are available for practice fields, and a portion of the playground still remains in its original condition, too wild for organized play. The school has a gymnasium large enough to contain a basket-ball court of standard size with a small amount of space for spectators. The dressing-room and shower-room space is unfortunately very much limited and not as adequate as is desirable in view of the program which is being carried on.

In planning this new program of physical training, two major aims were uppermost in our minds. First, we think it desirable to develop strong, healthy, normal bodies and minds. Second, we think it desirable to foster certain personal, civic, and social attitudes which we believe to fall within the responsibility of the school.

In order to contribute most successfully to both of the aims which influenced the development of our program, we have striven to introduce as much competitive activity as possible. We hope by this means to stimulate greater interest on the part of the children and at the same time to be able to stress the elements of co-operation or team work essential for successful competitive activity.

We believe that having a large number of competitive games offers the big muscle training and lung development and the precision and promptness of response which are the aims of most gymnastic training and at the same time satisfies a majority of the play tendencies of early adolescent children. The danger of overstrain which frequently accompanies competitive games can be eliminated by adequate supervision of the children's activities, and it is understood on our playgrounds that games may be interrupted at any time that a player shows fatigue. Our play periods, therefore, have been given over to speed ball, soccer-baseball, baseball, Newcomb, volley ball, dodge ball, and a large variety of relays. One period a week is devoted to folk dancing for the girls; this is very popular. One period a week during portions of the year is devoted to corrective gymnastics for those children who, in the annual physical examinations, are shown to be suffering from physical defects.

For competitive games the play groups are divided into teams, varying in size according to the game. The teams remain constant in personnel during a given series of games, and a slight recognition is made of the winning team in this play-period competition. These



teams are usually organized by the whole group electing as many captains as there will be teams. These captains then draw for their order of choice and are allowed to choose in rotation the members of their teams. The result is that the teams are usually evenly balanced, and the competition is keen.

The physical director is assisted in his supervision by three play leaders, chosen from among the children by election, who share with him responsibility for deciding minor matters of routine, refereeing games, and adjudicating disputes between teams. It is understood on the playground that the decision of a play leader shall be final in any instance under dispute. Where feeling has developed that an individual play leader is incapable of fair and impartial judgment, he may be removed from his position. While he holds authority, however, his decisions are respected.

A definite effort has been made to eliminate "razzing" from the playground. The following are the children's own words used in a letter sent to incoming seventh-grade pupils:

Be a good sport—play the game for the sake of the game and win if you can. If you can't win—lose like a sport. Don't crab—the other fellow is just as square as you are. Every Skokie fellow wants to do the right thing, just as you do. . . . It doesn't matter whether you have ever played before—you will never learn any younger. It doesn't matter how clumsy you think you are—there is always someone who is clumsier. If you muff the ball, no one will laugh at you, because Skokie players are good sports, and everyone is ready to help everyone else. LEARN!

The result of this effort has been to make the playground enjoyable for children of all capacities, and we have practically no pupils who attempt to escape participation in the games or other playground activities. The only exceptions are children who have been excused on doctors' certificates.

All this contributes to a healthy activity and an enthusiastic interest in bodily development, leading to an after-school sports program which we believe marks the greatest success of our entire plan.

In order to stress our second aim, the following list of attitudes is kept before the children both by discussion and by example, and an attempt is made to show their intimate relation to the sports program.

ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDES OR QUALITIES EXPRESSED IN ACTION  
ON THE PLAYING FIELD

1. Loyalty
  - a) Loyal to a team mate, friend, or comrade
  - b) Loyal to a captain or leader
  - c) Loyal to a team, section, class, or school
  - d) Loyal to a town, state, nation, etc.
  - e) Loyal to ideals of sportsmanship
2. Honesty
  - a) Honest in observing rules of games
  - b) Honest in observing standards of competition
  - c) Honest in reply to officials' queries
  - d) Honest in returning and accounting for equipment
  - e) Honest in respecting property rights
3. Courtesy
  - a) Courteous in speech to opponents, team mates, and officials
  - b) Courteous in action to opponents, team mates, and officials
  - c) Courteous in recognizing ability of team mates and opponents
  - d) Courteous in observing amenities
  - e) Courteous in observing rights of adjacent areas
4. Modesty
  - a) Modest in acceptance of important position
  - b) Modest in acceptance of victory
  - c) Modest in acceptance of commendation
  - d) Modest in acceptance of public adulation
  - e) Modest in demeanor while traveling
5. Reliability
  - a) Reliable in taking assigned position
  - b) Reliable in method of play
  - c) Reliable in meeting appointments
  - d) Reliable in adherence to training obligations
  - e) Reliable in maintaining scholarship standards
6. Cheerfulness
  - a) Cheerful in acceptance of group choice
  - b) Cheerful in acceptance of orders
  - c) Cheerful in acceptance of advice or criticism
  - d) Cheerful in acceptance of minor position
  - e) Cheerful in acceptance of defeat
7. Initiative
  - a) Expressed through resourceful play
  - b) Expressed through advice and suggestions to team mates
  - c) Expressed through leadership and example
  - d) Is the quality expressed under pressure?
  - e) Is the quality constant or fluctuating?

8. Sociability
  - a) Co-operates in preparation for activity
  - b) Co-operates in policing (cleaning) after contest
  - c) Co-operates in enforcing regulations
9. Tenacity
  - a) "Sticks to it" in acquiring technique
  - b) "Sticks to it" until game is ended
  - c) "Sticks to it" when on "short end" of score
  - d) "Sticks to it" when playing against odds
10. Pugnacity
  - a) Is the quality plus or minus?
  - b) Is the quality constant or fluctuating?
  - c) Is the quality expressed through bullying?
  - d) Is the quality expressed through "picking fights"?
  - e) Is the quality expressed through determined, efficient effort?

We had been making the athletic emblem award to members of the winning teams in all after-school competition, but the effect of this emphasis on attitude appeared a year ago when the children, through their representatives on the student council, pointed out that many times the players who had shown the best sportsmanship and who had contributed most to the success of the athletic season were members of losing teams. At their suggestion, a new emblem was devised, the sportsmanship emblem. This is now awarded to the member of each team who, in the opinion of his or her team mates, has contributed most, by good sportsmanship and unselfish co-operation, toward bringing success to his team. It is interesting to note that when these emblems are awarded, the recipient is frequently one who could not possibly be chosen as the best player on his team. The award of sportsmanship emblems apparently meets with the indorsement of the entire student body, for that emblem is at the present time one of the most highly prized honors which a child can receive.

In working out our after-school sports program, we have made our aim athletic participation for everyone, and, as in the play-period competitions, even the poorest players find welcome and helpful training.

In the autumn we have football for boys and hockey for girls. Groups of boys are on the field every afternoon, while the girls' hockey games are limited to Monday, Wednesday, and Friday after-

noons. During the winter, beginning about the first of December and continuing until about Easter, is the basket-ball season for both boys and girls. Play is scheduled three afternoons a week for both, and in order to accommodate the teams it has been necessary to utilize a second gymnasium near the school. During the spring we are again able to get outdoors, and both boys and girls play baseball, using the four-inch soft ball.

When the sports program is organized each season, the children are required to sign a blank, agreeing to observe the following general rules:

1. I will obey the training rules posted by the coach.
2. I will attend all practice periods and games unless excused.
3. I will not play with any other teams unless given permission by the coach.
4. I will accept coaches', captains', and officials' decisions cheerfully and without dispute.
5. I will conduct myself on or off the field of play in a manner that will reflect credit upon my team and the Skokie School.
6. I will at all times be courteous to members of opposing teams and their supporters.

The parents are also requested to sign this blank, and it is impressed upon them that, by signing it, they assume a definite obligation to assist the child in fulfilling his agreement. The home-room teacher, who is responsible for keeping track of the child's scholastic and disciplinary record, must also sign the blank. If, in this teacher's judgment, the athletic work will interfere seriously with the child's progress in school work, the teacher may refuse to sign the blank, and the child is excluded from participation in athletics. When a child has filed a blank duly signed, he may be excused from practices or games only upon written request from his parents.

The academic teachers are supplied with a list of practice and playing dates and must arrange any after-school make-up periods or disciplinary penances, if such are deemed necessary, so as not to conflict with the athletic program. This matter of conflict between athletic activity and academic work has been fully debated by the faculty of the school, and agreement has been reached with practical unanimity. We have decided that if the athletic program has worth because of its mental, moral, and physical training, the academic

departments are no more justified in attempting to force the athletic department to carry the weight of delinquency in academic work than the athletic department would be justified in requiring the children to miss their English or mathematics class because they had not reported for football practice. This attitude toward athletics is perhaps novel, but we feel that it is absolutely sound. The result has been to place on the academic teachers responsibility for making their own work sufficiently vital to enlist the children's interest and willing response. In other words, the teaching has been improved.

After the application blanks are signed, the children are grouped first by weight and then by skill and playing ability. The aim is to secure as many evenly matched teams as is possible within the determined weight classifications. The formation of teams is usually preceded by three or four weeks of practice, which, for many of the children, means learning the rudiments of the game. From the showing made by the individuals during this preliminary practice period, the playing ability of each individual is judged, and it thus becomes possible to make team assignments which are reasonably well balanced. Last year during the basket-ball season the boys were divided into three major groups—the middleweights and the lightweights among the boys of some playing ability and a group of boys of limited training.

The North Shore Country Day School, a private school located in Winnetka, has adopted approximately the same general scheme for its after-school athletic program, and its teams are entered in competition with our teams of similar standing. Thus, three leagues were formed, in each of which three or more teams were competing. The decisions with regard to the winning teams were figured on a percentage basis.

Before any pupil is allowed to participate in athletic competition, he must submit to a physical examination, and during the playing season the school nurse is in attendance every afternoon when the girls are playing, weighing each of them and keeping careful watch for overstrain. The playing time is limited to conform to the maturity of the children, and the referee of the games is vested with authority to allow time out whenever he deems it necessary. In this

way we have been able to provide an athletic program in which seven hundred individuals have participated in three hundred inter-school or intraschool match games over a period of two years without a single instance of unhealthy or undesirable reaction from such participation. These figures, of course, represent a duplication of individuals, for the total number of different children engaged in the after-school play periods during the last two years was about 380.

What is the result of such an organized play program as has been sketched? Last year a ballot was taken among the children in which they were asked to indicate the subjects which they liked the best, those toward which their reaction was purely negative, and

TABLE I

Season	Game	Participants
Autumn, 1922.....	Football	44 boys
Winter, 1922-23.....	Basket ball	121 boys and girls
Spring, 1923.....	Baseball	135 boys and girls
Autumn, 1923.....	Football	40 boys
Winter, 1923-24.....	Basket ball	135 boys and girls
Spring, 1924.....	Baseball	105 boys and girls
Autumn, 1924.....	Football	74 boys
Autumn, 1924.....	Hockey	50 girls
Winter, 1924-25.....	Basket ball	184 boys and girls
Spring, 1925.....	Baseball	183 boys and girls

those which they actively disliked. Only three children out of 270 junior high school pupils expressed themselves as disliking the playground activities. This means that by far the greater portion of our children are approaching the matter of adequate physical training with willingness and enthusiasm.

In the matter of after-school athletics we may cite some rather interesting statistics. Our graduating class in June, 1924, contained 101 pupils. Of these, 84 had participated in interschool athletic competition during one or more seasons. When one considers that in the average school of this nature only a very small proportion of the children can possibly place on the "school team" and share this interschool competition, these figures are, to say the least, remarkable.

The figures for intramural participation shown in Table I are equally interesting. During the school year 1922-23 the actual en-

rolment in the junior high school was 214; in 1923-24, 253; and in 1924-25, 280.

We feel that we are justified in our program. We have, without doubt, gone a long way toward securing active athletic participation on the part of the entire student body. Measured in terms of present healthful activity, the results are exceedingly satisfying. When we consider that we are teaching games to children who have heretofore had little opportunity to learn such games and that we are instilling, through experience, ideals of true sportsmanship in the hearts of a large proportion of the children, we believe that we have gone a long way toward realizing that ideal expressed by the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association in their *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, "to equip the individual to secure from his leisure the re-creation of body, mind, and spirit." In childhood we have found a means of allowing physical activity to compete with the "movies." Once the joys of sport have been realized to the full, we believe that there will be implanted a strong antidote for the current craze for passive forms of recreation.



## PROGNOSIS IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

J. N. JORDAN

Central High School, Kansas City, Missouri

It is not the purpose of this article to deal in detail with the various principles underlying the prognosis of pupil performance in any of the varied high-school subjects. Principles such as those relating to the correlation of pedagogical abilities and the constancy of the intelligence quotient have been well covered in modern textbooks dealing with educational research. We should, however, understand that this correlation and constancy must exist, to some extent at least, if there is to be any such thing as prognosis or the carrying out of any systematic scheme of educational guidance.

The purpose of this article is rather to report the results of two years of personal research in, and observation of, pupil prognosis. As the writer has been a teacher of foreign languages at various times and has noted, often with discouragement, the somewhat dismal struggles of many students to make satisfactory headway in foreign-language study, the idea of prognosticating with a view to group selection has occurred to him as a possible solution worthy of investigation.

For prognostic research in foreign language there are two types of tests available. There are, of course, the usual mental-ability

<sup>1</sup> Since the writing of this article the author compared, at the close of the first semester of the school year 1924-25, 165 Freshmen in beginning Latin and Spanish classes in the Central Junior High School of Kansas City, Missouri, with reference to group intelligence scores and teachers' marks. The National Intelligence Tests had been given to these pupils in the spring of 1924 by the research and educational-guidance department of the city schools as a part of a general testing program. A distribution table shows the range of scores from within the 80's to within the 180's. The lower quartile was approximately 130. It was found that of those pupils scoring less than 130, 40 per cent were marked "Inferior" or "Failure" at the close of the first semester of the school year 1924-25. Of those scoring higher than 130, 81.4 per cent received satisfactory marks. The observation with reference to prediction tended to confirm that of the previous years.

tests, either group or individual, which, in the opinion of many experts, cover such a wide range of abilities that they would give as true an index of the presence of various skills required in a particular subject, such as Latin or French, as would a special test designed to separate and test special linguistic abilities. Several of these special-ability tests have been devised for foreign language, among which are those of Wilkins, Henmon, Carr, and Allen.

The value of one type of test over the other is perhaps a matter for much further research under actual classroom conditions, along with an investigation of the question as to whether prognosis itself is possible and practicable.

During the autumn and winter of the school year 1922-23, the writer tested and observed eighty-one foreign-language pupils (Latin, French, and Spanish) in the Chrisman High School at Independence, Missouri. For prognosis, the Wilkins Prognosis Test in Modern Languages was used. There are six sections of the test covering various abilities. On account of the confusion at the opening of school, it was possible to give only the first four sections, which are group tests. Each section is scored 100 for perfect work; thus, in the case of the four sections it was possible to make a score of 400. Professor Wilkins states that a pupil making below 60 per cent of the possible score, which in this case would be 240, cannot be expected to do satisfactory work. Believing this to be too low a percentage, the writer arbitrarily set 300 as the dividing line for prediction of performance. The teachers' marks for the semester were taken as the measure of what the pupils had accomplished in their work.

The teachers' marks were distributed as shown in Table I. Of the eighty-one pupils, twenty-eight, or 34.6 per cent, were marked "Inferior" or "Failure."

The results of the Wilkins test are shown in Table II. Of the eighty-one pupils, twenty-four made scores of 300 or less. Of these twenty-four pupils, twenty-one, or 87.5 per cent, were marked "Inferior" or "Failure" by their teachers, who, of course, did not know the Wilkins test scores. Of the pupils who scored above 300, 87.7 per cent were given satisfactory marks. The correlation between the prediction scores and the teachers' marks was .746, which indicates close agreement.

The same kind of testing and observation was carried out during the year 1923-24 at the same school; in this case there were 108 pupils in beginning language courses. The Wilkins test was again given, with results differing from those for the preceding year. The

TABLE I  
MARKS OF EIGHTY-ONE FOREIGN-LANGUAGE PUPILS  
1922-23

Mark	Number of Pupils	Percentage of Pupils
Excellent.....	6	7.4
Superior.....	21	25.9
Medium.....	26	32.1
Inferior.....	19	23.5
Failure.....	9	11.1
Total.....	81	100.0

TABLE II  
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SCORES OF EIGHTY-ONE PUPILS ON THE  
WILKINS TEST, 1922-23

SCORE	PUPILS' MARKS					TOTAL
	Excellent	Superior	Medium	Inferior	Failure	
170-200.....				2	3	5
201-220.....					1	1
221-240.....						
241-260.....			1	4	3	8
261-280.....			1	4	1	6
281-300.....			1	2	1	4
301-320.....	1		10	2		13
321-340.....		4	6	2		12
341-360.....	1	8	5	2		16
361-400.....	4	9	2	1		16
Total....	6	21	26	19	9	81

teachers' marks for the 108 pupils in 1923-24 are shown in Table III. Of the 108 pupils, 42, or 38.9 per cent, were marked "Inferior" or "Failure."

Table IV shows the results of the Wilkins test given in 1923-24. Of the 108 pupils, 59 scored 300 or less. Of these fifty-nine pupils, twenty-seven, or 45.8 per cent, were marked "Inferior" or "Failure"

by their teachers. Of the pupils who scored above 300, 69.4 per cent were given satisfactory marks. The correlation of the 108 prediction scores and the teachers' marks was .486, only fairly significant.

TABLE III  
MARKS OF 108 FOREIGN-LANGUAGE PUPILS, 1923-24

Mark	Number of Pupils	Percentage of Pupils
Excellent.....	10	9.2
Superior.....	23	21.3
Medium.....	33	30.6
Inferior.....	23	21.3
Failure.....	19	17.6
Total.....	108	100.0

TABLE IV  
DISTRIBUTION OF THE SCORES OF 108 PUPILS ON THE WILKINS TEST, 1923-24

SCORE	PUPILS' MARKS					TOTAL
	Excellent	Superior	Medium	Inferior	Failure	
170-200.....			3	1	2	6
201-220.....			5	1	2	8
221-240.....			1		1	2
241-260.....		2	5	2	6	15
261-280.....		3	4	3	5	15
281-300.....	1	2	6	3	1	13
301-320.....	1	5	4	8	1	19
321-340.....		6	4	2	1	13
341-360.....	4	3	1	3		11
361-400.....	4	2				6
Total....	10	23	33	23	19	108

In order to compare a special-ability test with a general group intelligence test for prognostic purposes, the same 108 pupils were given the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability. Both sets of tests, it should be noted, were given at the beginning of the school year. It might be interesting to record that 52 of the 108 pupils were tested again by another examiner about the middle of the second semester with the same form of the Terman test. The correlation was found to be .896.

Many writers, among them Terman himself, have stated that

pupils with I.Q.'s of 90 or less should not take such subjects as Latin and algebra. However, for purposes of observation, the writer arbitrarily chose the higher figure of 100 as the dividing line for prediction purposes.

The results of the Terman test are shown in Table V. Of the 108 pupils, 57 had I.Q.'s of less than 100. Of these fifty-seven pupils, thirty-three, or 57.9 per cent, were marked "Inferior" or "Failure" by their teachers. Of the pupils with I.Q.'s above 100, 82.4 per cent were given satisfactory marks. The correlation of the 108 predictions and the teachers' marks was .491, only fairly significant. The correlation of the I.Q.'s and the scores on the Wilkins test was .509.

TABLE V  
RESULTS OF THE TERMAN GROUP TEST OF MENTAL ABILITY

I.Q.	PUPILS' MARKS					TOTAL
	Excellent	Superior	Medium	Inferior	Failure	
70-79.....	.....	.....	2	1	.....	3
80-89.....	.....	.....	8	9	9	26
90-99.....	2	6	6	7	7	28
100-109.....	1	13	8	6	3	31
110-.....	7	4	9	.....	.....	20
Total....	10	23	33	23	19	108

So far as this research is concerned, the writer claims no very definite or very accurate results, because some of the percentages and correlations are apparently rather low. If, however, it is recognized that standard achievement tests were not used in determining the accomplishments of the pupils, the figures are perhaps high enough to indicate that prognosis is valuable in foreign-language work. The results indicate that it may also be possible, through further investigation, to devise tests, either of the intelligence type or of the special-ability type, that will give very positive indications as to the probable success of pupils. The results given in this article show little choice between the two types, although the intelligence test has slightly greater value for prognostic purposes.

If one were to use these results in any practical way in the guidance of pupils who have already decided to study a foreign language

or who should possibly be urged to do so, the range of probabilities as indicated by the figures might be employed. For instance, those pupils who had been given the Wilkins test and had scored below 300 might be told that their chances for success are about even and that, unless they need the subject for some special purpose or vocation, it would perhaps be better to take some other subject and avoid the probability of failure. If the pupil then elected the language, he would at least know that his efforts must be concentrated to a high degree in order to obtain even a passing mark. Pupils scoring higher than 300 could well be advised that their chances for success in foreign-language study are much more than even if they apply themselves properly. They have a 70 per cent probability of passing in the course.

If the Terman test were used for prognosis, those pupils with I.Q.'s below 100 might be told that the probability of success is not quite even, as about 60 per cent of such pupils can be expected to do unsatisfactory work. Pupils with I.Q.'s higher than 100 could be encouraged to undertake foreign-language study, as the chances for success are much in their favor—over 80 per cent probability if work is done with a reasonable degree of thoroughness and concentration.

There is a possibility of criticism that prognosis would not give equal opportunities to high-school pupils in selecting the subjects which they might desire to take and that all elective courses should be open to all pupils. However true this may be, the conditions in the present-day high schools, with the overcrowded classrooms and the full schedules of the teachers, fail to justify a profligate use of teaching equipment. Unless time and space and special teachers are available for the handling of classes, the present casualties in the languages will continue until pupil guidance is provided. If one considers the case of the pupil in Latin, for instance, who is continually perturbed in the effort to make a passing mark, one wonders whether, after all, that pupil is really profiting sufficiently to justify the time and effort spent by the teacher and himself. If such pupils cannot be segregated in a special class with others of their kind, it would perhaps be better to guide them into other subjects which they can pursue more successfully.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*A handbook for administrators.*—A recent manual<sup>1</sup> for school administrators affords a variation in textbooks on school administration. The author has written with the thought that it is worth while to tell how school administration is carried on without including tedious philosophical discussions of administrative theories. Fortunately, he has had practical experience in the administrative field, particularly in small school systems. He endeavors to tell novices how things may be done. The language is simple. The arrangement both as to chapters and as to material within a chapter is well planned. For the inexperienced school man, interested in preparing to administer a small school, the book has a real mission. The more experienced administrator and the college educator will find the book a pleasant review with occasional high points of thought-provoking ideas. Certain parts are worthy of consideration by classroom teachers. All in all, it would be a good addition to any educator's library.

Certain ideas expressed by the author are worthy of special attention. For example, it is a relief to have an administrator state that the board of education and the superintendent may well work together in choosing the teaching staff rather than that the superintendent should insist on his right to name all members of the staff. Advanced scholastic training is generally of less importance for a superintendent of a small school system than are training and experience in administrative problems. "The first and most important consideration in supervision is a clear understanding of its aim and purpose, and a sympathetic co-operation on the part of all teachers" (p. 157). "In the past much of the so-called supervision of instruction not only has failed to be of any real value but has only added useless burdens to the task of the already overworked teacher" (p. 157). Clear, pithy statements occur throughout the book.

The field of administration is well treated in the twenty-five chapters. Not only is technique of organization and supervision of instruction covered, but such subjects as guidance of study, extra-curricular activities, teachers' meetings, parent-teacher organizations, graduation exercises, publications, and janitorial service are discussed. A bibliography follows each chapter. Extensive analyses of the "1, 2, 3" variety are characteristic of the treatment of most of

<sup>1</sup> W. N. Andersen, *A Manual for School Officers*. New York: Century Co., 1925. Pp. xviii+384. \$2.00.



the subjects and make the book readable and especially usable. Chapter viii should be of great help to the novice in that it lists by grades available texts in the various fields. The chapter on the program of studies, on the other hand, appears to deal with the subject in a way that is likely to cause difficulty for the novice. The matter of curriculum-building may well be left for the graduate student in education. Adverse criticism may be made respecting the plan of having an "offense card" (p. 367) for recording all demerits. Why not record the merits as well as the demerits?

All administrators will not agree with some of the ideas expressed, but they most certainly will find much to commend.

LYONS TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL  
LAGRANGE, ILLINOIS

G. W. WILLETT

*Literature for the junior high school.*—The challenge to produce suitable material for use in the junior high school has been very satisfactorily met in the field of literature by a recent three-book contribution<sup>1</sup> by R. L. Lyman and Howard C. Hill, of the University of Chicago. The volumes are intended for basal texts in reading and literature in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. They represent the newer ideas with regard to the place of good literature in the proper education of boys and girls from twelve to fifteen years of age.

The authors have assembled a very carefully selected body of material, consisting of short stories, poems, essays, and one-act dramas, together with selections from biographies, narratives, reminiscences, tales of adventure and travel, and books about science and industry. Each selection has been chosen because of its literary merit, its content value, and its interest to boys and girls. The selections are grouped in units which are intended to give an elementary, but systematic, survey of the chief factors in social life. Questions and problems designed to stimulate thinking, to arouse worth-while discussion, to focus attention on the meaning of literature, and to encourage systematic training in the development of reading skills are provided in connection with each selection.

Book I contains a body of literature chosen to aid the pupil in interpreting the elements of community welfare. The selections are grouped in the following units: "Making Homes," "Going to School," "Finding Enjoyment," "Providing Safety," "Seeking New Homes," and "Making the Best of One's Self." Each of the units is made up of a number of subdivisions or subtopics. For example, the following subtopics appear under the unit "Making Homes": "The Dwelling-Place," "The Home Circle," "Glimpses into a Few Homes," "Family Ties and Home Obligations," and "The Influence of Home." Each of the subtopics includes from five to ten selections which portray different aspects of the central thought to be developed. Book II is planned to interpret work and

<sup>1</sup> Rollo L. Lyman and Howard C. Hill, *Literature and Living*: Book I, pp. xx+688; Book II, pp. xxii+706; Book III, pp. xx+716. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1925.

vocations. The units treated are "Conquering Nature," "Making and Building," "Buying and Selling," "Communicating and Traveling," "Saving and Conserving," and "Finding and Doing One's Work." Book III contains selections of literature bearing on civil life and civic obligations. The following units are treated: "Friendship and Neighborliness," "Teamwork and Co-operation," "Helping the Handicapped," "Loyalty and Service to Country," "Promoting World Fellowship," and "Being a Good Citizen."

The three volumes provide more than two thousand pages of choice reading material designed to develop good taste and worth-while ideals and to encourage extensive reading on the part of pupils. To this end, annotated book lists, lists for the classroom library, and suggestions for additional reading and reports appear at frequent intervals throughout the books. The selections are also chosen with a view to effecting a close correlation with the basic subjects studied in the junior high school and are arranged to tie up the class activities with the library.

The publishers have set a model in attractive text-making which will be hard to equal. The volumes are bound with cloth of different colors, which adds to the attractiveness of the series. The type is clear throughout, and the unitary organization is given prominence by an outline of the selections included under each of the subtopics at the beginning of each unit. An appropriate plate in connection with the title introduces each of the subtopics. An excellent glossary, an index of authors and titles, and an index of first lines of poems are provided at the end of each volume.

The books are a unique contribution both in the field of reading and literature and in the science of text construction. They represent the best experience and thought of two well-known educators, who have submitted their materials to the test of classroom use before publication. Junior high schools will find in the series a wealth of materials not heretofore organized and assembled in usable form.

W. C. REAVIS

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*An introduction to statistical method.*—There is no inherent reason for statistical method being the forbidding subject that it is. Many of its fundamental concepts are easily within ordinary comprehension, and many of its most important calculations involve no mathematics other than the simplest arithmetical and graphical processes. In spite of these facts, the principles of statistical method are known to relatively few workers in the field of education, and many of this small group hold amazingly erroneous ideas about such basic matters as measures of relationship and variation. Ignorance of statistical method is due not to a lack of literature in the field but to the absence of an exposition of educational statistics which is both basal and understandable. It is to the decided advantage of the rank and file of the students of education, as well as to the unquestioned benefit of the science of education in general, that this lack of an

intelligible account of statistical method has been overcome, to a large extent, by a recent text<sup>1</sup> on the subject.

The book is, in the best sense of the term, an introductory text. It begins at the beginning. It assumes that the reader is new to the method and nomenclature of statistics. As one reads the book, one is impressed by the caution with which the author explains every step in the processes described. If not elaborated in the immediate context, every new term is explained in a footnote, or reference is made to its appearance in a subsequent discussion. Every new concept which is likely to be obscure in meaning is clearly discussed and illustrated.

Earlier treatises on statistics have emphasized processes of calculation and have neglected the interpretation of the product of the calculation. As a consequence, after completing the elementary course in statistics, most students of education know how to compute the common measures, such as the median, the mean, the deviation, and the correlation, but they have little conception of what these signify after they have been computed. The author of the volume which is the subject of this review must have been aware of this dereliction on the part of other writers, for he has produced a text which more nearly avoids this error than does any treatment published up to the present time. He has accomplished this by taking extraordinary measures in making clear the meaning of statistical terms. Every new topic is introduced by the presentation of a practical school problem in which the topic is directly involved. With one or two exceptions, every chapter is concluded with several paragraphs elucidating the significance of the measures after the steps in their computation have been described. In treating the topic of correlation, the author devotes an entire chapter to the meaning of correlation before he takes up the processes of calculation. Anyone familiar with the customary text in the field of educational statistics will recognize at once that this patient emphasis on interpretation of statistical measures is a genuine advance over the tedious expositions which have heretofore confused the thinking of students of education.

Further evidence of the intimate connection which the author makes between calculation and interpretation is presented by the direct relationship which is developed between statistical processes and the measurement of educational achievement by means of standardized tests. For example, the problem of variability gives the author an opportunity to discuss the overlapping of ability in different grades as revealed by objective tests; again, the importance of the median as a measure in school work is illustrated by constant reference to it in discussing the topic of norms; separate chapters are devoted to the use of the coefficient of correlation in determining the reliability and prognostic value of tests; and a final chapter is given over to a discussion of the most important of the practical school problems germane to educational measurements and statistics, namely, the problem of grading and classification.

<sup>1</sup> Arthur S. Otis, *Statistical Method in Educational Measurement*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1925. Pp. xii+338. \$2.16.

The text is prepared by an expert in educational statistics. This fact is manifest in the careful selection of the materials presented in connection with controversial statistical issues. It is also apparent in the introduction of several of the latest statistical and graphical devices known heretofore only to specialists, such as percentile graphs, correlation charts, and simplified correlation methods; and it is obvious in the manner in which many common statistical fallacies are indicated. This authoritative treatment, however, should be expected from one who is the author of several useful tests of intelligence and achievement and who has made important contributions to statistical theory.

Mention should be made of the supplementary materials and devices in the appendixes in the form of statistical tables, practice materials, bibliography, age calculator, and I.Q. slide rule.

Generally speaking, there should be two objectives for the course in educational statistics: (1) to enable the student to use statistical methods in handling quantitative data and (2) to enable the student to read and understand current educational literature. Both of these objectives are amply provided for in this text. So far as the experience of the reviewer goes, he has found this book the most completely satisfactory introductory treatment of educational statistics in print at the present time, and he has no hesitation in predicting that it will receive extended use not only in reading circles but especially in teachers' colleges and universities as the basal text for the first course in statistical method.

HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

*Recent developments and the present outlook in secondary education.*—It is a well-recognized fact that secondary education is in the process of reorganization. Leaders in this field of education are constantly reinterpreting and reconstructing in an effort to meet the needs of adolescent youth. Changes are taking place so rapidly that it is difficult, even for those actively engaged in the work, to keep in touch with the progress which is being made. Educators interested in secondary education will find an excellent summary of recent developments and the present outlook in a number of the phases of secondary education in the 1925 yearbook<sup>1</sup> of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

The first 108 pages of the book contain a directory of the officers and members of the association for the year 1925. This directory gives the name, academic degree, and position of each member of the association. The remainder of the book is given over to a report of the annual meeting of the association held at Cincinnati in February, 1925. Because of the number of phases of secondary education discussed at this meeting, it is difficult to describe adequately the contents of the report. However, the nature and scope of the topics treated are indicated in the following summary: (1) guidance in the secondary school,

<sup>1</sup> *Ninth Yearbook of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*. Cicero, Illinois: H. V. Church, Secretary, 1925. Pp. cviii+210.

(2) the place of the secondary school in the program of international understanding, (3) problems of high-school administration, (4) curriculum problems, (5) the high-school principalship, and (6) the junior high school.

Two points of view are set forth in the discussions of guidance. One point of view is to be found in a suggested program for guidance work and in a statement of the principles on which the guidance movement is founded. The other point of view, while not antagonistic, is conservative in character and calls attention to some of the dangers encountered in attempting guidance with secondary-school pupils. It represents the opinion of those who are hesitant about adopting the guidance program in its entirety. The discussions give an excellent résumé of the present status of the guidance movement.

The papers dealing with the place of secondary education in the program of international understanding are forward-looking in character. They call attention to the importance of international understanding in present-day affairs and attempt to point out ways in which secondary education may function as an agency for promoting a better understanding of world-problems. One discussion gives specific ways in which several of the high-school subjects may contribute to a better knowledge of world-relations. The discussions call attention to an aim of education which offers to every department of the secondary school an opportunity for service.

The administrative problems discussed in the report are varied in character. One discussion deals with the rural high school, another with college relations, and another with athletics. The discussions are the reports of committees which have given much time to a consideration of their particular problems. Many timely suggestions are made. An important phase of the discussion of administrative problems is to be found in a paper which emphasizes the necessity for administrators to make systematic plans in advance so that when emergencies are encountered they can be properly handled. A number of helpful suggestions are offered to indicate how this advance preparation may be put into practice.

The section of the report dealing with curriculum problems gives a brief, but comprehensive, survey of the current work in the field of curriculum investigation. One article is devoted to descriptions of current studies in curriculum analysis and is designed to acquaint the reader with the nature of that work in the secondary field. This article is followed by a selected list of publications dealing with curriculum investigations and by a list of names and addresses of persons engaged in the work. A report of a committee which has made an extensive study of the influence of the "seven objectives" on high-school curriculums presents data collected from the secondary schools of the North Central Association showing what these schools are doing to realize the objectives set forth in the well-known bulletin, *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*.

Two discussions deal with the high-school principalship. The first paper emphasizes supervision as the major function of the principal and suggests five specific working tools with which supervision may be carried on. The second

paper reports a study of the question, "What becomes of high-school principals?" This study summarizes information collected through questionnaires from ninety-three principals who left education during the year 1922-23 to enter other work. It throws light on the holding power of the high-school principalship.

The latter part of the report is given over to a consideration of the junior high school. One paper summarizes the recent developments in this field of education. Other papers point out the recent accomplishments and influences of the movement, the entire junior high school movement being surveyed in a concise way.

The yearbook contains ample evidence of another year of progress in the constantly changing nature of secondary education. It is filled with information and suggestions which should inspire workers to greater endeavor in the solution of the many problems in this field.

J. M. McCALLISTER

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*A biography of our presidents.*—A recent book<sup>1</sup> contains a short sketch of the life of each president of the United States from Washington to Coolidge. The accounts range from four pages for Benjamin Harrison and Taft to twenty-seven pages for Lincoln. Each gives a graphic record of a president—his heritage, youth, education, and love affairs, as well as his administration of the chief executive office. In fact, the years before the presidency frequently receive more space than those of the administration. The book is not a history of the United States but plainly a short biography of each of the presidents, giving the influence of the president on important measures but not a full account of the measures themselves. The historical significance of each administration is impartially set forth.

The volume is illustrated and well indexed. It is full of humor, interest, comparisons, and interpretations. It has ethical value and an optimistic tone and is worthy of duplication by the junior or senior high school library.

HEBER P. WALKER

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*A contribution to the teaching of literature.*—A collection of literature<sup>2</sup> for high schools, beautifully printed and attractively bound, which will immediately appeal to many pupils as a desirable permanent possession, is to be welcomed by every teacher of English. That such a book should contain eight plays as diverse as Schiller's *Wilhelm Tell*, Molière's *The Doctor in Spite of Himself*, and Euripides' *The Trojan Women*, and, representing the epic, five of Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* and translations of the *Ramayana* and *Sigurd the Volsung*

<sup>1</sup> James Morgan, *Our Presidents*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. xviii+326. \$2.50.

<sup>2</sup> Ernest Hanes and Martha Jane McCoy, *Readings in Literature*: Volume One, pp. xii+586; Volume Two, pp. xvi+536. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925.



(Morris) is certainly remarkable both in its inclusions and in its refusal to admit a miscellaneous aggregation of material. That footnotes should be as rare as in a real library edition and that the appendixes of questions and suggestions for study—most of them questions which will arouse thought and discussion—should be confined to eight pages at the back of the book are still more remarkable. Teachers will want to try this collection in the third year of the high school, for which it is suggested, or perhaps in the fourth year, to see what their pupils make of it. No teacher can possibly be excused for not knowing it and the selections it includes. It is a new and most intriguing sort of literature book.

Volume II, intended for the second semester of the junior year or, in connection with composition, for the senior year, is no less interesting in its concentration and in its selections. It consists of more than 150 pages of essays, including selections as fine and unusual as Moulton's essays on "Friendship" and "The Pursuit of Wisdom" and Schopenhauer's "Thinking for Oneself," and approximately 350 pages of lyric poetry. Both the poems and the essays are wisely grouped and arranged by topics rather than on the basis of a chronological or other logical classification. The poems particularly will considerably enlarge the horizon of most teachers of English. They are chosen with a free hand and nice discrimination from Palgrave's collection and more modern verse, from American as well as English writers. With these again the proof is in the pupils' responses. This volume is made up of more tried material than the first and, for this reason, will doubtless find an even readier acceptance and use.

In order to increase the chances of success of so unique a venture, the writers have prepared a very useful manual for the teacher.<sup>1</sup> The first chapter is as concrete and as practical a description of what the teaching of literature should be in practice as the reviewer has seen anywhere. It will be a great pleasure to refer both experienced teachers and prospective teachers to it. Note, for example, the following as a statement of the purpose of literature in the senior high school:

The function that can best be served by the high-school course or courses in literary classics is the introduction of children to literary personalities as expressed through their works, just as soon as, and no sooner than, the children are themselves sufficiently mature to find those literary personalities interesting friends [p. 8].

The suggestions go very far in informality—perhaps farther than it is imperative to go; for example, the omission of all examinations is suggested—but it is unlikely that anyone will become too drastic in the assault on formality in teaching literature in the high school. And if we can often give the torpedo shock with a vigor like this, we may get somewhere. Appendix II, "Concrete Evidence of Results," is interesting as showing compactly the kind of results one would like to have from teaching units of literature like this, results which these authors show us they have actually achieved.

<sup>1</sup> Ernest Hanes and Martha Jane McCoy, *Manual to Readings in Literature*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. Pp. viii + 116.



Quarreling with details is too easy to be profitable. One wonders whether we are not being led back to formalism when, in "teaching the unit in drama," we find that the instructor reads *Macbeth* without discussion and requires the pupils to leave their books in the room lest they get ahead. Rightly done, it might be fit and beautiful. But the picture one gets of some teachers in the act of massacring Shakespeare is not a little appalling. One questions whether the *Ramayana* and *The Trojan Women* will really succeed in the average high-school class with the average teacher, even when so well guided. These questions are minor. The fact is that we have here a fine book and a very fine lot of suggestions for teachers. We should all know about them and try them and turn our energies to making the best use of both.

S. A. LEONARD

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

*The story of the ancient peoples.*—Textbook-makers would do well to remember that the best books for children of high-school age are those which make an appeal to adults. Adolescence does not relish being written down to, and the best writers for children are the ones who succeed in placing the children on their own level.

A recent book<sup>1</sup> designed for use in high schools seems to have been written in the spirit indicated. It deals with a field which has been neglected by writers of children's books, possibly on account of its difficulty. As usual, the title does not describe the book, which is concerned with primitive man and the oriental peoples but not the Greeks and the Romans. After an introductory chapter dealing with the migrations of the nomadic peoples, the author takes up in succession the historic peoples of the near Orient: the Babylonians; the Cretans; the Egyptians; the Syrians, including the Hebrews and the Phoenicians; the Assyrians; and, finally, the Persians. The book ends with a historical summary, a useful table of dates, and an appendix, valuable to teachers, which includes lists of preferred books about the foregoing peoples and, in addition, notes on points of special difficulty in the narrative.

The author's purpose is not to tell the story of the oriental peoples consecutively; the book is rather a series of historical views for children. The reader is introduced to each people at the culminating point of their development. The author makes each chapter center around an imaginary character, whose fortunes he follows from youth to age. This character is shown in his social relations and contacts with the world about him and in a series of interesting experiences. The content of the book thus deals as much with the life of the people as with history in the usual sense. However, in connection with the fortunes of the family of the hero, the author introduces essential facts of the historical development of the people treated.

<sup>1</sup> D. M. Vaughan, *Great Peoples of the Ancient World*. New York; Longmans, Green & Co., 1925. Pp. x+178. \$1.20.

The style of the book is simple, and the scholarship and literary feeling of the author have combined to give a sense of reality to the narrative of past events. The book is easily read on account of the conversational method of treatment and challenges the attention of the reader at once.

In appearance, the book is typical of the care given by the English publishers to the mechanical makeup of their volumes. The binding in buckram is attractive; the book is well printed on good paper; and the illustrations are well reproduced. It has in its ensemble a clean-cut, neat appearance that makes a favorable impression before the book is opened.

On the whole, the book impresses the reviewer as one that will appeal to youth of the adolescent age. It is not of the textbook type, although in the hands of skilful teachers it might have successful use. Rather, it is the type of book we need for parallel reading in connection with the usual courses in ancient history. It will be useful in the junior high school and possibly in connection with the ancient-history course in the senior high school.

A. F. BARNARD

*An exercise book for teachers of English usage.*—Teachers of English usage and composition are impressed with the large number of texts and exercise books which are being produced. Some are prepared by people who are primarily interested in commercial production; others are designed by those who have the needs of the classroom pupil and teacher in mind.

A recent exercise book<sup>1</sup> provides material for drills and tests in punctuation and grammar that is of real interest to the pupil. The exercises are connected discourses on subjects of genuine interest and value to the pupil instead of isolated sentences. Such subjects as the following are utilized in constructing sentences for drill: sportsmanship, school activities, training for leadership, standards for motion pictures, health and success, a plan for study, the habit of reading, etc. The book also contains suggestions for compositions related to the subject matter of the discourses. This provides for individual differences among pupils. The second part of the book is devoted to drills and tests in grammar, presented in the form of games in a mental basket-ball tournament. There are forty-six games, covering all the essentials of grammar. Appropriate blanks are provided on which the pupil records his score in each game. The pupil is the manager of his mental basket-ball game. He directs the five players: his book, the exercises, his fountain pen, his disposition to work, and his brain. The teacher is the referee. At the close of the tournament each pupil hands his total score to the referee.

If used to enliven class periods and provide fresh material for drills and tests, the book should prove to be a valuable aid to teachers. The exercises are easily corrected, include the essentials to be taught, and contain numerous informal subjects for compositions.

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

<sup>1</sup> Ruth M. Whitfield, *High School English Exercises*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1925. Pp. 71.

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,  
AND PRACTICE

- BUSWELL, GUY THOMAS, and JUDD, CHARLES HUBBARD. *Summary of Educational Investigations Relating to Arithmetic*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 27. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1925. Pp. viii+212. \$1.50.
- The Elementary School Principalship—A Study of Its Instructional and Administrative Aspects*. Edited by Arthur S. Gist. Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals. Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1925. Pp. 197-480. \$1.50.
- FOSTER, CHARLES R. *Extra-curricular Activities in the High School*. Richmond, Virginia: Johnson Publishing Co., 1925. Pp. xiv+222. \$2.00.
- GRAY, WILLIAM SCOTT. *Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 28. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1925. Pp. viii+276. \$2.00.
- HALL-QUEST, ALFRED LAWRENCE. *Professional Secondary Education in Teachers Colleges*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 169. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. Pp. viii+126.
- MARTIN, HERBERT. *Formative Factors in Character*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1925. Pp. vi+346. \$1.40.
- MEEK, LOIS HAYDEN. *A Study of Learning and Retention in Young Children*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 164. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. Pp. x+96.
- MELCHIOR, WILLIAM T. *Insuring Public School Property*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 168. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. Pp. xviii+188.
- NOFFSINGER, JOHN SAMUEL. *A Program for Higher Education in the Church of the Brethren with Special Reference to the Number and Distribution of Colleges*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 172. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. Pp. vi+80.
- ODELL, C. W. *Educational Statistics*. New York: Century Co., 1925. Pp. xviii+334. \$2.50.
- PERRY, WINONA M. *A Study in the Psychology of Learning in Geometry*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 179. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925. Pp. 60.
- PETERSON, HARVEY ANDREW. *Experiments and Exercises in Educational Psychology*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1925. Pp. 256.
- PILLSBURY, W. B. *Education as the Psychologist Sees It*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. Pp. x+342.
- PITTENGER, BENJAMIN FLOYD. *An Introduction to Public School Finance*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925. Pp. xvi+372. \$2.00.

- PROSSER, CHARLES A., and ALLEN, CHARLES R. *Vocational Education in a Democracy*. New York: Century Co., 1925. Pp. xii+580. \$2.75.
- RUGG, HAROLD. *A Primer of Graphics and Statistics for Teachers*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925. Pp. vi+142. \$1.60.
- SAYLES, MARY B. *The Problem Child in School*. With a Description of the Purpose and Scope of Visiting Teacher Work by Howard W. Nudd. New York: Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency (50 East 42d Street), 1925. Pp. 288. \$1.00.
- STITT, EDWARD W. *Memory Selections: Their Value and Importance*. New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc., 1925. Pp. xvi+296. \$1.60.
- UHL, WILLIS L. *Principles of Secondary Education*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1925. Pp. xii+692. \$3.00.
- WINSLOW, CHARLES-EDWARD AMORY, and WILLIAMSON, PAULINE BROOKS. *The Laws of Health and How to Teach Them*. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1925. Pp. xiv+354. \$1.60.

#### BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

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